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# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing*

**THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE**

**VOLUME XII**

**JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1921**

**PHILADELPHIA**

**McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY**

**1921**



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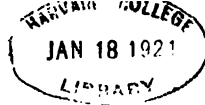
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Volume XII.  
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, JANUARY, 1921.

\$2.00 a year.  
25 cents a copy.

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*Published monthly, except July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.*

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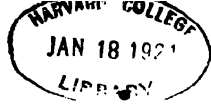
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# The Historical Outlook

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## Europe in the Summer of 1920

BY LUCY E. TEXTOR, Ph.D., Vassar College

Cherbourg in June—a smiling town on the blue water's edge, picturesque vehicles making their way along winding streets, markets heaped with vegetables, fruits and flowers, a busy and seemingly contented folk engaged in all the homely tasks of everyday life. As I looked about me I became aware of a lightness of spirit which I had not felt since August of 1914. I kept repeating to myself: "The war is over, and the world is sane and whole again." There was, indeed, little evidence of the great tragedy. Crape veils, yes, but it was easy to remember that in France mourning is worn for even distant relatives. It was true that whenever I made a purchase, stamps were given me for change, but I accepted this as a temporary inconvenience, just as I ate my dark bread with the reflection that after another harvest France would know again the white loaves of old.

Late in the afternoon I went into a *pâtisserie*, and while I waited for my chocolate to be prepared, a steady stream of customers purchased dainty little cakes. The buyers were mostly of the humbler class; some of them ate their cakes in the shop, and were not content with one, though its price was sixty centimes. This was an afternoon treat which they could not have afforded before the war. Everywhere in the town there was evidence that wages had risen and that work-people lived well. This was the dominant note in Cherbourg. I knew, of course, that there must be *nouveaux pauvres*, but they were not to the fore.

Conditions seemed to me much the same all through Brittany. The bread varied somewhat, but was nearly always wholesome, if not especially tempting; food was abundant. There was even plenty of butter and cheese. Prices had risen tremendously, it was true, but they were within the reach of many people. Certain necessary economies were evident. Hotels had not been renovated as of yore. Vehicles, particularly automobiles, had not been kept in good repair. Indeed, some were so out of kilter that it was painful to ride in them. There were fewer trains than in the past, but they ran regularly, and the service was excellent.

The chateaux country of the Loire was lovely as ever, and there were enough sightseers to make it worth while to schedule trips almost as in the past. The region, too, had plenty of food. Never have I eaten more delicious meals than those that were served in the *Phaisan d' Or* at Tours.

In Paris, however, things were different. The city had its old allurements, but the atmosphere was tense. The struggle for life was harder here. There were more of the impoverished middle class who had difficulty in making both ends meet. The fact that farm produce was taxed on coming into the city made food dearer and less abundant. Eggs were sixty to eighty centimes apiece, and meat from five to eight francs a pound. One felt, too, subtly the close proximity of the devastated regions where war had done its worst. When I looked upon the widespread ruin, I felt that it would take France a long time to recover.

Getting into Germany proved easier than I had expected. A German visa was all that was necessary, and that was easily obtained. I crossed the frontier at Strassburg. The bridge over the Rhine was empty of vehicles except for a French government truck, which obligingly carried my baggage with its own freight to the German side. The little town of Kehl looked dead. Once at the station, I bought a ticket for Frankfurt-am-Main, and paid so little for it in the depreciated currency of the country that I felt ashamed. The mark was then worth about two and a half cents. It was a glorious day, and the fields were marvelously green, but I saw not a single cow at pasture during that six-hour ride. Milk was extremely scarce in this region. There was not enough for the babies. On more than one occasion I was asked with pathetic eagerness whether the rumor was true that America meant to send two thousand cows. The bread was poor. One afternoon I made the round of eight bakeries, and at each one I bought a small slice of apple cake. In every case I found the crust gritty and soggy. At the hotel at which I stayed, saccharin was served for coffee instead of sugar, the soup was invariably flavored water thickened with some starchy substance, meat gravies and vegetables were prepared without fat. On one occasion I was invited by a cultivated woman in delicate health to take supper in her home. The table was carefully laid, but there was nothing to eat except some heavy, dark brown biscuits, margarine, canned apple sauce and tea. Many people in this once wealthy city were undernourished, some because they could not get the kind of food they needed, and others because they were too poor to buy the food that was on the market. Prices were sky-high. Eggs, for instance, were two marks apiece, rice anywhere from

five to eight marks a pound, cheese from twenty-four to thirty marks a pound. And it must be remembered that the mark meant a great deal more to a German than to an American, who could get forty for a dollar.

The wages of laborers had gone up greatly, though not enough to enable them to live comfortably. The salaries of teachers had been raised. One of them told me that whereas she had been receiving four thousand marks a year, she was now to have twenty thousand. Instead of increasing the salaries of teachers as the cost of living rose, the government had hitherto preferred to give bonuses, the amount depending upon the size of the family of the recipient.

People in Frankfurt-am-Main were depressed. Though eating together is usually supposed to make for sociability, the hotel dining-room was a silent place. I got the impression of a good deal of bitterness, though I seldom heard it put into words. There did not seem to be much feeling against the United States, though President Wilson was blamed for not having held strictly to the fourteen points in the framing of the treaty.

I was particularly struck by the bearing of the waiters at the hotel at which I stayed, and I ascribed their quiet dignity to the fact that they were receiving a living wage and that, at their own initiative, feeling had been done away with. This wholesome change had taken place in other cities. Nürnberg was an exception, and the hotels there felt it necessary to print on their menus that Trinkgeld was still the order of the day. I saw another evidence of progress in the changes which had been made in the curricula of the schools. A great deal more stress, for instance, is being laid upon the history of other countries, as though Germany felt that, after all, her children had something to learn from them. It was significant, too, that discouragement and even hunger had not more greatly impaired the efficiency of the people. The excellent railway service was one evidence of this. Trains, for the most part, departed and arrived exactly on schedule. The cars were kept perfectly clean. The stations met every need. I think I have never traveled more comfortably than on the journey from Frankfurt to Nürnberg, and I rode third class. As I talked with the passengers and shared the food which they had brought in their baskets, I thought I discerned in them a spirit which boded well for the future of Germany. If there was less respect for law and government as such, there was certainly a greater independence of judgment than in the past. Their horizon was broader, they looked beyond the boundaries of their own country, and were beginning to glimpse a world in which the welfare of each is found only in the welfare of all.

Prague was a blessed relief. People smiled. Hope and lusty good cheer were in the air. I felt myself in the midst of a vigorous people confident of a great future. The hardships of the present, such as scarcity of wheat, and unemployment, were, for the most part, gladly borne as temporary evils which a just and righteous state would soon find ways to remedy. It was refreshing to come upon a govern-

ment that was respected. I judged that it deserved the confidence of the people when I talked with the Minister of Education concerning the school system and the disposition of the expropriated lands. Schools and homesteads for all! It was interesting to learn that the law of April 16, 1919, which provided for the taking over of large estates, was unanimously passed by a National Assembly representing all Czech political parties, that henceforth no one could own more than a thousand acres and that the number of small landowners was greatly increased.

Apropos of this unanimous vote I found myself wondering whether the Sokol organization had not done a great deal toward binding the people together. Founded fifty-two years ago, it taught during all that time that bodily health is essential to courage and perseverance, and that it can be achieved only through discipline. Here was a combination of physical and moral strength destined to stand the nation in good stead. That remarkable Czech army which, isolated as it was, held its own in Russia and fought its way to the sea was largely made up of Sokols, as were also those Czecho-Slovak legions who arrayed themselves on the side of the Entente. I got some idea of the influence of the Sokols from a very remarkable performance given by them in a great natural amphitheatre just outside of Prague one Sunday afternoon late in July. The stage comprised not only the level stretch of ground at the bottom of the slope on which the audience sat, but also the broken wooded hills lying to the left and right and the vast rising meadow at the back. Here the Sokols acted out the thrilling story of the Czech regiments that deserted to the Russians and fought the Austrians. The great stage, stretching far on both sides and fully a mile to the back, became a veritable battlefield. Amid the din and roar of cannonade the enemy broke and ran. One saw them in the distance seeking cover where they could. Cavalry sought to cut off the escape of the fugitives; stretcher-bearers made their way here and there and carried off the dead. The audience sat spellbound under the realization that this was the way in which their freedom had been won. The whole performance was a marvelous appeal to their patriotism, and must certainly have awakened in them an added pride in their new state.

I wondered as I looked at the great crowd how many Slovaks were there. Surely in the thrill of the moment they forgot that they had a grievance against their state. Confident in their own ability, they see no reason why Czechs should fill most of the offices, civil and military, in Slovakia. The Czechs believe this to be a temporary necessity, since Magyar oppression kept the Slovaks illiterate and backward. It is their former masters who are now trying to fan the flame of discontent into active resentment. This is a danger spot in the new Czecho-Slovak state.

There is another element which the government must handle wisely—the nearly three million Germans living in more or less compact masses on the borders. They were included in the new state be-

cause without them it would have been only fifty miles wide near the center and could easily have been cut in two in time of war. The inclusion of this alien element without a plebiscite seems to me to have been a mistake. Be that as it may, however, the essential thing now is to safeguard the interests of this minority so that it will have no cause for complaint. The Germans were declaring while I was in Prague that they were not being treated fairly in the matter of schools. In the statistics which he gave me, the Minister of Education seemed to me to refute this charge. He said, moreover, that German schools were being maintained in some districts where there were not enough children to warrant the expense, and that where such schools had been closed because the number of children was few, provision had been made for teaching these children in their own tongue in Czech schools. The Germans, however, think they have a grievance, and have petitioned the League of Nations to investigate the matter.

From Prague to Vienna is a seven-hour run on the express. I put up at the New Bristol, a luxurious hotel with an irreproachable cuisine. There was no hint of dearth of food, though it struck me as curious that it was the waiter, and not the hotel, that furnished breakfast bread and butter. Bread being rationed, the chances were that he secured the generous allowance he had on hand through illegal traffic. There were many elegant shops on the Kohlmarkt, but prices were high even for an American, who could get nearly two hundred crowns for a dollar. Most of the shops were empty. I saw some fashionably dressed women, and occasionally I heard the sound of music coming from a restaurant or cafe. But there was comparatively little evidence of wealth, and little gaiety. On the other hand, want could be seen on every side—pallid, undersized children, their eyes glued to the windows where food was displayed; shabby, weary people sitting listlessly on the benches along the Park Ring; unemployed men wandering the streets. A closer scrutiny revealed a poverty among the middle classes that was almost fantastic. Top-coats, though it was summer, were closely buttoned in a vain attempt to conceal the lack of a shirt; frayed, worn-out dresses showed below once costly wraps; queer assemblages of garments kept company only because of dire stress.

Many once well-to-do families in Vienna have been able to keep body and soul together only by selling their furniture piece by piece. It is particularly the brain workers whose source of income has been cut off. Many of these men held positions in offices that managed business enterprises in territory now lost to the state. Others were officials in parts of Austria that were made independent and who were therefore dismissed from their posts. Still others were army officers. I was told by our consul that the government had sent one thousand of these last to Brazil, but that they were faring badly there.

The number of children in Vienna in August was 840,000, in round numbers. Of these, 827,000 were undernourished. The American Relief Administra-

tion gave 160,000 one meal a day. This was intended to be merely a supplementary meal, but investigation disclosed the fact that nearly 7 per cent. of the children received no other food. I visited the station in the Belvedere Palace. The kitchens were large, well equipped and immaculate, and the bread and raised cake which I sampled were excellent. At twelve, on the stroke of the hour, the children were admitted. Each presented a little book that showed him entitled to a meal, and then received a generous allowance of cocoa in the tin pail he had brought with him, and a large portion of sweetened rice in the cover of the pail, so made as to serve for a plate. These meals are carefully prepared by persons who have received a three months' course in food values and scientific cooking according to a system devised by Dr. von Pirquet, an eminent Austrian physician. The menus vary from day to day, the food used being cocoa, milk, rice, flour, beans, lard, bacon and sugar. The continuance of this work is assured until June, 1921. The Austrian government pays the overhead expenses.

The Friends' Relief Mission is also doing much to alleviate the everywhere prevalent distress. At one of their distributing stations Austrian voluntary workers were assembling the various parts of the unit of food given to each one entitled through proven need to receive it. Identical little heaps were ranged on the long counter, each one made up of a certain amount of flour, bacon, condensed milk, sugar and cocoa, soon to be transferred by a grateful woman to her waiting empty basket. In one of the stockrooms little girls who seemed to be anywhere from ten to fourteen years old were weighing out quarter-pounds of cocoa in small paper bags. In another room a second group of girls were weighing out flour. They gave their services from two to five o'clock in the afternoon.

This same Mission sells clothing to the needy at prices within their reach. Only those may buy who have received cards entitling them to do so, and no one may buy more than two garments. A great room in the newest wing of the Emperor's Palace served as a store. One of those in charge told me that the poverty of the once well-to-do was revealed here more plainly than anywhere else. She gave as an instance the case of a lady who was unwilling to try on the shoes she wished to buy and who finally explained with reluctance that she had no stockings. In this connection I was told that there were a great many men in Vienna, particularly in professional callings, who stood in dire need of a suit of clothes, but could not buy it at the market price. The Friends were discussing ways and means of solving this problem.

It is often said that Austria ought to help herself. Certainly! But it must be remembered that she has been shorn of her chief sources of supply; that she has no coal to run her factories, no raw materials and no credit with which to buy these things. In my journey from Vienna to the southern border I did not see smoke issuing from a single factory chimney. The fact that the people feel unable to help themselves under present conditions is chiefly responsible



for the desire that Austria be permitted by the Allies to join Germany. Many feel that if they were part of a larger state they would profit by the greater diversity of opportunities to make a living. There is much to be said for this point of view.

I left Vienna at seven o'clock in the morning, and entered Jugo-Slavia at about three o'clock in the afternoon at Zidani-Most. There was a stir of excitement among the passengers. "Here we shall get something to eat," they said; "there is good white bread." Great, crusty, delicious rolls weighing about a quarter of a pound cost three dinars each, the equivalent of six cents in American money at that time. The price was high, but there was an abundance of this bread; there was also cake made with butter and eggs, good rich cheese and meat. Early that evening we reached Zagreb, and there, too, white bread was plentiful and for sale to all who could buy. Food in general seemed abundant. It was much the same at the various stations at which we stopped on our way to Belgrade and Sofia. Peasants crowded to the train, offering us bread of various kinds, always good and often white, fruit, roasted ears of corn, and occasionally roasted spring chicken. Thrace seemed the land of watermelons. There were three varieties, white, yellow and green. They lay in great heaps at every wayside station, and could be bought for a dinar or two. I was told that melons were so abundant that they were often fed to cattle, and I saw no reason to doubt the truth of this statement.

But if certain kinds of food were readily obtainable in the region through which the train passed, clothes were certainly not. The peasants were, for the most part, ragged in the extreme. This seemed to me particularly true of the Serbians. They were, however, unconscious of their rags, and in this and in other ways they seemed children of nature. I felt that they had a long road to travel before they could become conscious builders of a state. I could understand the restiveness of the Croats in the new kingdom. They had learned as well as suffered under Austria. This difference in the two peoples seemed to me reflected in the aspect of the country. The Croat farms were trim and well kept; Serbia looked unkempt.

Zagreb, formerly the capital of Croatia-Slavonia, impressed me as a much finer city than Belgrade. The latter looked beautiful when viewed from some high vantage ground, but the beauty lay in the site rather than in the city itself. Great improvements are being made in Belgrade, but it will suffer for a long time to come from comparison with Zagreb to the west and Sofia to the east. The capital of Bulgaria is perhaps the finest of the three. It must be remembered, however, that Belgrade suffered in the war as the other two did not. I may say in passing that our minister to Jugo-Slavia is occupying the former Turkish embassy, and that only one room in it was left unspoiled by the Germans on their departure.

Traveling in the Balkan peninsula had its difficulties. The train which I took at Vienna for Belgrade stopped at Zagreb from seven o'clock in the evening until nine the next morning, instead of the

scheduled four hours. It had become known to the officials soon after the train reached Zagreb that there would be this long delay, but it did not occur to them to tell the passengers so that those who chose might go to a hotel instead of sitting up all night. There were no sleeping-cars. On another occasion the express from Belgrade to Sofia was booked to leave at ten o'clock at night. Its non-appearance at the station when the clock struck was the first intimation to would-be passengers that it was late. For a while the station officials said that it might arrive at any time. It did not appear until six o'clock the next morning. A third example: My train from Sofia to Constantinople lost fourteen hours on the way. It was true that very recently there had been hostilities in this region and that portions of the roadbed had been destroyed. For an interval of nineteen days no trains at all had been running, and this was only the second one to get through. The first, however, had made good time. Not far from the boundary between Bulgaria and Thrace we were overtaken by the Orient Simplon Express. The two trains stood on parallel tracks, and I begged to be allowed to board the express, offering to pay my fare over again on that train. But I was told that such a thing could not possibly be permitted. On my return I secured a reservation from Constantinople to Trieste in the *wagon-lits* of the Simplon, but could get a railroad ticket only to the point where Turkish pounds ceased to be the accepted money of the country. At the Bulgarian frontier, at about one o'clock in the morning, I was obliged to buy another ticket priced in leva, and at Belgrade still another priced in dinars. French francs, however, were everywhere readily accepted, and I had occasion to wish that the government had not limited to one thousand the amount that might be taken out of France. Later in the summer this limit was extended to five thousand.

That a great deal of time was consumed in examining passports and baggage at every frontier goes without saying. Mostly the officials were reasonable and as considerate as circumstances permitted. I remember one brutal episode. It was noon of an extremely hot day. The long platform and the small station lay baking in the sun. There was no shade anywhere. Our passports were collected and taken out to be examined. Half an hour later two Greek officials appeared and began talking loudly to a gentleman in the compartment next mine. They told him that he and his wife could not go on because their passports had not been vised at Sofia, where they had spent the previous night. The gentleman explained that he had gotten the Greek vise at Vienna, but to no avail. He was told that since he had stopped at Sofia, he should have gotten a second Greek vise there. Then the officers laid hold of the baggage, held each piece high in the air while they jested about it, and with loud laughter threw it out of the window. Thus did Greeks behave as masters of territory which they had acquired only a few weeks before.

I was not surprised, in the light of the above epi-

sode, to find that there was a good deal of feeling against the Greeks in Constantinople. It was said that success had gone to their heads and that they were overbearing. "Better the Turks as rulers of the city than the Greeks" was a sentiment which I heard several times expressed, but which probably was meant to convey nothing more than dislike and disapproval of the countrymen of the much-admired Venizelos.

The presence of fugitives was a constant reminder of the unsettled condition of this part of the world. There were about 60,000 in Constantinople—Russians, Armenians, Greeks and Turks. The Russian, numbered nearly 10,000, and more than half of them had been placed on the Princes Islands, in the Sea of Marmora. Those on the island of Principo were cared for by the British, those on Halki by the French, those on Antigone by the Italians, and those on Proti by the American Red Cross. These refugees were chiefly of the educated class, and their one idea was to compass the overthrow of the Soviet government. Some of them believed that Wrangel would enlarge his territory and build up a country to which they could return. This was one reason why they wished to remain in the near vicinity, though they knew that it would be well-nigh impossible for them to find work suited to their capacities and that winter would add to their sufferings. They would be obliged to leave their tent homes on the icelands, and there were no housing accommodations for them in Constantinople.

As the weeks passed, the lightness of heart which I had felt in Brittany changed to a settled depression. I became ever more conscious of the terrible aftermath of the war. France was staggering under an enormous debt, and could not make the most of her resources, because she lacked man power. Germany was hungry. The absence of physical well-being prevented her from putting forth her best effort to fulfil the conditions of the treaty, and retarded the sane reconstruction of the state. Austria was fatally depleted in her resources and at odds with herself. Jugo-Slavia was threatened with internal difficulties and unfriendly neighbors. Bulgaria smarted under a sense of injustice. She might become reconciled to the loss of Strumnitza, for that represented only a small area, but she would continue to denounce the award of Thrace to Greece. Everywhere nationality was rampant. Trade barriers were maintained even at the cost of human life. Governments still looked to the old diplomacy and the old arts of self-defense, and could not envisage a future based on the principle of co-operation for the good of all. It was, however, the lowered morale generally that gave me most concern. Consciously or unconsciously, many people, particularly in southeastern Europe, were less exact in their statements, less honest in their dealings, less efficient in their work, less regardful of law, than before the war. Humanity had lost ground.

Early in the autumn I found myself once more in Cherbourg. The city was filled with emigrants waiting their turn to sail to America. All had paid their

passage money and were booked to leave on a certain date, but so badly had the steamship companies managed this business that thousands found themselves unable to go at the appointed time for lack of quarters. Their plight was in many cases most pitiful. Cherbourg in June had meant to me hopeful Europe recovering from the ravages of war. Cherbourg in September meant to me suffering Europe seeking a new home.

#### COMMUNICATION

December 11, 1920.

Editor, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

I have read with amused interest the contributions to the December, 1919, and November and December, 1920, issues of the OUTLOOK regarding the teaching of Canadian history in the United States, and should like to remark that in the spring semester of 1917 I introduced a two-hour course in the history of Canada at Goucher College, and have since taught it every spring. Goucher, therefore, preceded the Ohio State University by about a year and a half in the introduction of such a course (not that it makes a particle of difference!) but I have not the ghost of an idea of whether Goucher was actually the first institution in the country to introduce such a course, though I do not know of any that was earlier.

Next year, however, the course in Canadian history will be incorporated with a comprehensive year course on the British Empire, which I believe to be a better arrangement; for two courses—one on the empire as a whole and one on Canada—seem hardly justifiable in view of the meagerness of Canada's history, on the one hand, and of the need for attention to more extensive historical fields, on the other. But I do most heartily agree that we should pay more attention to the history of our very good neighbors to the north—neighbors so much like ourselves in many ways that we are inclined to forget that a large portion of their history has been apart from ours and that they have peculiar problems with which we are all too unfamiliar.

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Professor A. F. Pollard of London University advocates a "School of Historical Research" in his article of that title (*Contemporary Review* for October, 1920). This he desires to have established in London permanently. "The costliness of the neglect of the lessons of history is shown in the events of March, 1918. The losses in that retreat, the cost of re-establishing the line and recovering the ground abandoned, amounted to hundreds of thousands of casualties and millions of pounds. Yet as far as can be judged, most of them might have been avoided by a recognition of the invulnerability of an island secure in the command of the sea, and by the timely release of troops from their futile labor in England for their proper function of holding the line in France."

# The Coldward Course of Progress<sup>1</sup>

BY S. C. GIL FILLAN, A.M.

The world leadership of civilization is inseparably linked with climate in such manner that practically whenever civilization has been advancing, the pre-eminence has been transferred toward colder lands, and when extant culture has declined, leadership usually has retreated southward. Let us now test this law, and account for it, and prophesy from it.

"Civilization" began in Egypt and Sumeria, hot countries. Then the leadership was assumed by Babylonia, Crete, Phoenicia, Assyria, etc., tending generally toward the north. In our diagram of the path of supremacy (page 000) the temperature of the capitals of the various nations are indicated by the vertical scale, and the period during which each was eminent is shown by the horizontal scale. A thickening of a city's line indicates special pre-eminence. The curve of the graph indicates the average temperature of the leading capitals; most weight was given to the city pre-eminent, but the curve was smoothed somewhat in the effort to make clear what would appear to be the general course of leadership in civilization, freed from minor fluctuations. Four southward movements may be noted, all of which fall in with declines of civilization. Thus on the break-up of the Roman Empire, civilization centered in Carthage and Alexandria, as well as Constantinople, and presently in Damascus and Bagdad; then gradually it moved northward through the Middle Ages, passing the Roman high level about 1850 and attaining regions colder than ever before. So, with the scene of highest civilization moving coldward when civilization advances, and southward when it disintegrates, the logical inference is that each grade of civilization has an appropriate temperature in which it will especially flourish. This theory, if established, largely explains the changes of headship between nations in the past, and may be used as a basis of prediction, if we assume that civilization will advance further. Let us therefore ascertain what basis the theory has in reason, aside from its observed correspondence with the course of empire in the past.

It has often been observed that civilization proper always began in warm regions. Its independent original sites seem to have been upper Egypt and the lower Mesopotamian valley, India, Shen-si province and Guatemala. All are warm, all but one hot. The explanation for civilization's first appearance in such places is that in a hot climate agriculture can be most productive, while an abundant food supply provides vigor, security, a dense population and surplus hands for occupations other than food production—factors necessary for the start of civilization. There are indeed other characteristics of most

or all of these regions, such as dryness, need of irrigation or drainage, and water transport, but these need not concern us here; they are found in many cool lands too. The point is that warmth was necessary for a nascent civilization, and, further, that the importance of warmth steadily diminished thereafter as man's power to produce food was multiplied by better animals and instruments for agriculture, greater science, more diligent habits, the decreasing importance of food as compared with miscellaneous other factors, such as minerals, and, latterly, by the power of importing food from other lands, as notably in the case of England, Germany and frigid Finland. In short, the positive value of warmth for agriculture steadily diminishes with the advance of civilization, while its harmful effects upon health and mind cause the scene of maximum culture, decreasingly bound by agriculture, to withdraw ever farther from the tropics.

A second factor in northward progress, mentioned only by Spencer and a few other writers, but very important, is the *possibility* of living in a cool or cold climate. Advancing civilization has given us warmer clothes, and tighter houses, fitted with artificial lighting and glass windows, chimneys, stoves and furnaces (the last four introduced, respectively, in the first century B. C. and the 14th, 18th and 19th A. D.), and a good fuel supply (wood can never be cheap in a region of dense population, unless transportation is highly developed, nor ever comparable to modern coal). And while civilization has been making agriculture less important, it has leaned increasingly upon the handicrafts, manufactures and clerical and other mental occupations, all of which can be pursued *indoors*, especially if the house be comfortable; indeed, they are more effective indoors than out. Cold weather is no detriment to them, whereas agriculture is greatly interfered with by long and cold winters. So the advance of civilization brings an increasing power to dwell northerly as man learns better how to keep warm, lit and comfortable inside a house and how to work there instead of in the fields.

Another changing need of civilization is an increasing demand for responsibility and stability. Hot weather, by increasing the body's chemical action and hence its surplus energy, along with a bad emotional state, has been shown to increase obstreperousness, crime, suicide, assaults, insanity and revolutions.<sup>2</sup> Probably such actions are more disruptive to a complicated, advanced civilization than to a primitive one. It has long been remarked that the fiery and volatile temperament of the southern peoples renders them incapable of the responsibilities and toils by which phlegmatic northern races have made great their states. But might not the southern temperament have been good enough for the simple and petty life,

<sup>1</sup>Reprinted by permission from *Political Science Quarterly*, with revision and addition by the author.

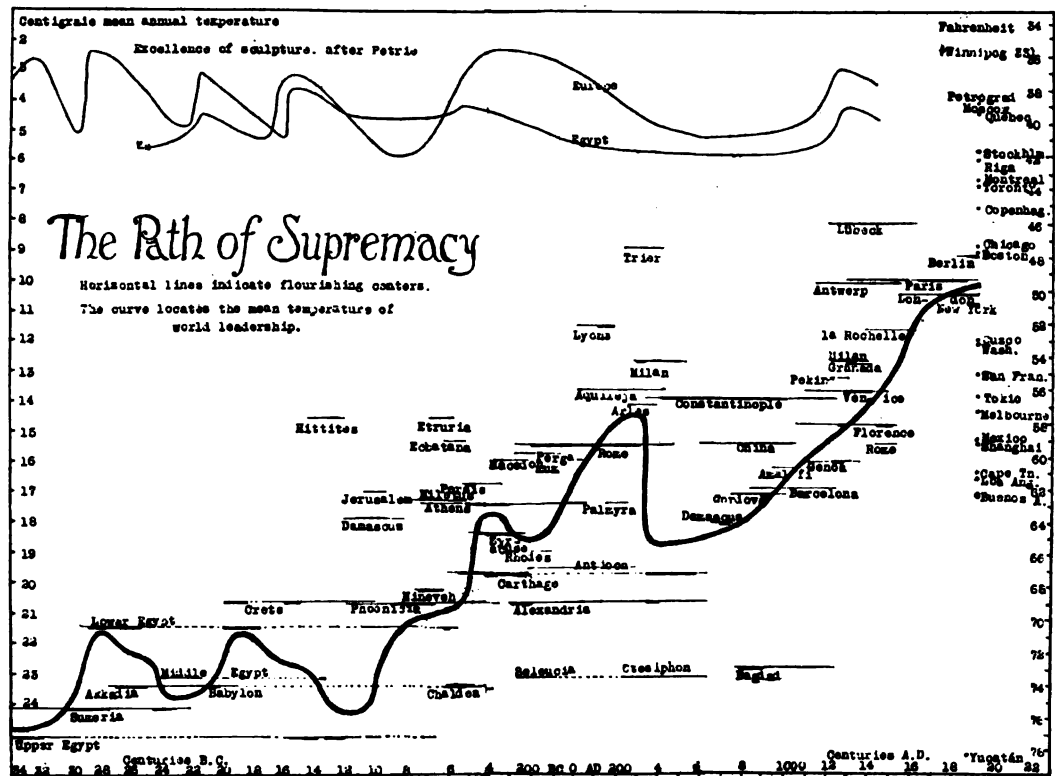
<sup>2</sup>Ed. G. Dexter, "Weather Influences."

the agriculture and handicrafts of a more primitive culture?

The first positive value of cool climes is their greater variation of temperature from day to day and season to season—very valuable stimuli which are found more in the latitudes of slanting sun. Professor Ellsworth Huntington<sup>8</sup> has shown that variations from day to day bring an important increase in human energy. Greater variations from month to month, together with intermittency of rainfall, entail greater variation in occupation, and varied tasks are probably more easy and beneficial in a complicated, mental civilization than in a primitive one. Next, and even more important, is the greater comfort and vigor,

then experienced in going in and out of doors. Forty degrees is about the annual mean of Quebec, Christiania, Moscow and Helsingfors. The difference between the ideal latitudes for physical and for mental labor is thus as broad as the range of latitude which culture's headship has traversed.

Primitive civilization has been said to depend chiefly upon the heaping up of material wealth, created almost entirely by manual labor performed by practically all the population, chiefly tillers of the soil, including often the women. There were some few thinkers—a handful of priests to design the Pyramids, and a few artists, nobles, judges and overseers—but the dull, toiling *fellahin*, on whose effi-



physical and especially mental, which are possible in a cool climate (since man had gradually learned to protect himself against the cold days of winter, but hardly against the hot ones of summer). Professor Huntington shows, through records of deaths and of the daily work of thousands of factory operatives from Connecticut to Havana, that *physical* efficiency is at its best on days when the temperature averages 64° F. for night and day, i. e., about the mean annual temperature of San Diego, Gibraltar, Palermo and Jerusalem. But *mental* efficiency, as measured by daily marks at West Point and Annapolis, is best on much colder days, about 40°, which give light frosts at night. This is probably the result of the stimulus coming from the changes of temperature

ciency nearly everything depended, comprised almost all the population. But a modern civilization, like that of our Empire State, requires mental rather than physical labor from a very large proportion of the population, while even the nominally hand crafts, such as housekeeping, farming and auto-driving, demand a more active mentality than the tillage or even handicrafts of primitive civilization. And the priest-scientist, the judge and the foreman have become leaders wielding powers greater than ever before for the progress or ruin of the community, to which their ideas are all-important. Altogether, modern civilization would seem to depend more upon clear thinking, initiative, will and self-control (in useful directions), and primitive civilization more upon physical toil, bodily energy. The change has been gradual, depending on the progress of civilization.

Let us consider, for example, a climate which

\*"Civilization and Climate," 1915; and "World Power and Evolution," 1919.

Huntington has found to be about the best in the world for a modern civilization, that is, that stimulating climate which enabled Germany to fight half the world, making bread from wood, clothes from thistles, tin of lacker, rubber from goodness knows what, and patriotism out of aggressive national ambition. About the year 90 A. D., Tacitus was describing this country, which he found gloomy and cold in comparison with sunny Rome and with a *kultur* vastly inferior. He wrote that our ancestors there were "powerful in sudden exertions, but impatient of toil and labor. . . . Nor are they easily persuaded to cultivate the earth. . . . Nay, they even think it base and spiritless to earn by sweat what they might purchase with blood. During the intervals of war they pass their time less in hunting than in a sluggish repose, divided between sleep and the table. All the bravest of the warriors, committing the care of the house, the family affairs and the lands to the women, old men and weaker part of the domestics, stupefy themselves by inaction; so wonderful is the contrast presented by nature, that the same persons love indolence and hate tranquillity!" We learn from other passages that the Germans' favorite occupations, after war and hunting, were gambling and drinking. And we find precisely the same conditions among the northern Amerinds, in a similar climate.

What we have here seems to be mental vigor combined with physical indolence (in spite of physical power). It seems utterly unsuitable for developing an early civilization, which could certainly never have been founded on abhorrence of agriculture and toil, and love of war, hunting, gambling and drinking.

But though a people may not like to toil, they can be forced to do so by an invading or indigenous noble class armed with ideas from an adjacent superior culture. So all the northern peoples have through the Middle Ages learned to labor willy-nilly, the individuals who failed to develop the habit being starved or hanged, although in a barbarian state they could have lived as long as the next man. Thus the northern nations have conquered their physical indolence, and retain their mental vigor (from a cool and varying climate), their alertness, which the peoples of hot countries never had. And so, with a civilization depending increasingly on mental effort, the northern nations have gone ahead.<sup>4</sup>

Pray, look again at the diagram of the path of supremacy. Its main curve has been drawn with the purpose of finding at what temperature the highest civilization in each country should have been had

there been no disturbances from other factors than mean annual temperature. The curve has therefore been smoothed somewhat by combining adjacent centuries and by considering the cities where civilization was high, if not the highest in the world. And, indeed, it is a very difficult matter to know just where civilization was at its height in each decade. Dates and temperatures are also somewhat uncertain.<sup>5</sup> The capital of each region has been chosen to represent the whole, for capitals are generally situated centrally, and great cities are usually the homes and creators of civilization. After all the errors in the diagram have been mentioned and, I hope, disregarded as unimportant and partially canceling each other, it remains evident that the path of civilization's banner has led steadily northward while culture was advancing, and *vice versa*. Most significant of all is the sharp southward movement through 8° of temperature about 800 A. D., just when civilization was declining. This period warrants a brief discussion, especially since our school books lay little stress on it.

Roman civilization at its height appears to have had its center even north of Rome. The Po valley was the richest region of all the empire;<sup>6</sup> Milan superseded Rome as the capital in 296; Aquileja was the second city of Italy under Hadrian, and was called by Ausonius the ninth greatest in the empire; yet in 452 it was destroyed and abandoned. Ravenna, Salona, Ancona, Arles, Lyons, Trier and other cities of Gaul were highly civilized in the later empire. Yet at the same time, Carthage was regaining her old splendor, and by 250 had half a million inhabitants. (See diagram of city populations and temperatures below.) During the failing days of the empire, Carthage became a special center of the Christian religion, with its bishops rivaling those of Rome; Tertullian, Cyprian and Augustine were all of this region. Carthage survived the Vandal rule, and flourished until its destruction by the Arabs. Alexandria, in the same epoch, was equally large and a center of high civilization, though of disorder. Antioch, too, waxed great, wealthy and wicked. Followed the days when Damascus, Bagdad and Cordova surpassed all the cities of Christendom in civilization as represented by splendor, art, wealth, learning, harmony, progress and population.<sup>7</sup> Then began the rapid upward and coldward climb of civilization to the present day.

Three other warmward movements are evident earlier. The first exactly coincided with the undoubted slump in culture after the great Pyramid Age at Memphis. The second southward movement began with the similar decadence after Egypt's Middle Kingdom and the first palace at Cnossus. It continued, we must confess, in spite of the rise of

<sup>4</sup>S. E. Slocum holds that the nervous system "as it becomes more complex" needs a more bracing, varied climate (*Popular Science Monthly*, 1910, p. 158). An engineer, P. Mougeolle, has described the northward movement of civilization in *Statique des civilisations*, 1883, a book of more leaves than fruit. His only explanation is acquired diligence, as above. Huntington has pointed out that the highly variable northern climates oblige the farmer to be alert and foresighted and highly laborious in critical days, in contrast with the more routine plodder of the sub-tropical irrigated areas ("The Earth and Its Inhabitants," edited by Lull, 1918, p. 179).

<sup>5</sup>The temperature of most former capitals is available in J. Hann's *Handbuch der Klimatologie*, second edition, 1897.

<sup>6</sup>L. Friedländer says that in Strabo's time Cisalpine Gaul "surpassed all other countries in the wealth and greatness of her cities."

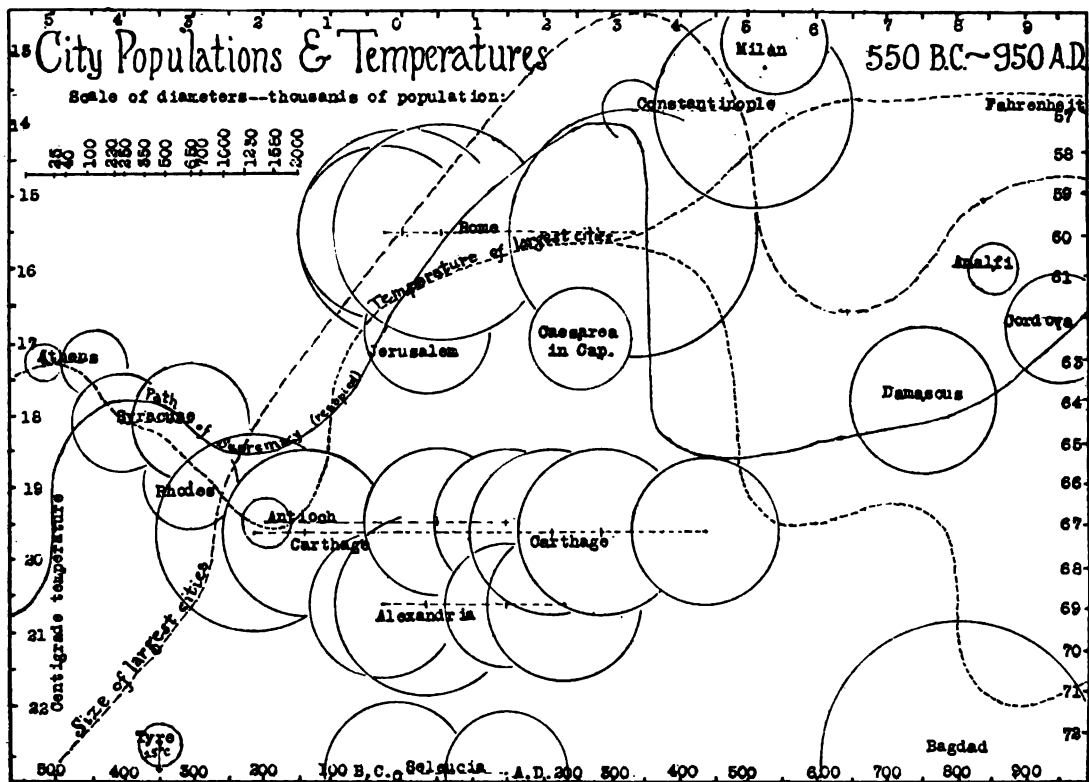
<sup>7</sup>It is some such definition as this, but with morals included, that we apply to "civilization," endeavoring to keep the word in its most everyday meaning.

Egyptian civilization of the Third Empire, if we consider only the capital at Thebes. The center remained south during the period of widespread barbarism which ensued around 1000 B. C., but rose with the ascendancy of the Syrian states. The third southward turn occurred after the Golden Age of Greece, when Rhodes, Alexandria, the Greek cities of Asia and Sicily, and Carthage became the great centers of culture.

These retrograde movements from culture and nothing give us an additional means of testing our theory by the facts. If the rule were never interfered with by other forces, all points in our graph's curve which lie at the same horizontal level (equal temperatures) should be at years whose highest civiliza-

period, Dr. Petrie has taken the transition point between competently handled archaism and full mastery of the new style. The high points in the other arts and in mechanics, science and wealth, he claims, occur later than in sculpture, increasing to several centuries later by the newest cycle, so that his curve of civilization as a whole would have an increasing lag after that of sculpture. Although this sculpture curve has a wholly different basis from the curve of the path of supremacy, there is a general synchronism between the two.

It is not easy to find an objective scale wherewith to measure degrees of ancient civilization. The criteria must be uniform throughout, for, as Petrie says, it is difficult to contrast Egyptian construction, Greek



tion was equal. Thus the coldest temperature in which Roman civilization centered, 58° F., was re-attained at approximately 1850 A. D., just about the year that the cultural level of grandest Rome was reattained. By laying a ruler on the graph the reader can verify the closeness in general of these correspondences. In spite of the entrance of many other factors in such close measurements, this comparison upholds our thesis.

One good measure of civilization, *sculpture*, has been competently studied by Flinders Petrie in his very suggestive "Revolutions of Civilization." We have reproduced at the top of the path of supremacy chart his curve of the ups and downs of sculpture, with the chronology adjusted to Breasted's, which we have followed below. As the high point of each

poetry and medieval self-denial. The author has chosen, as did Mougeolle, the *size of cities* as being perhaps the best single criterion of culture and one available in arithmetic form; yet ancient data are scanty and uncertain, for while a city's population is the first fact that a modern mentions, it was the last to concern an ancient writer. But we have taken what we could find, from Beloch, Friedländer<sup>8</sup> and many other sources, and present the result, for the years most critical for our theory, in the accompanying chart. Populations are indicated by the area of the circles, and temperatures and dates by the vertical and horizontal placing of their centers. In

<sup>8</sup>Friedländer's have been reduced by one-third. Populations stated to be "at least" or "more than" have in all cases been increased by one-fourth.



the curved lines we have endeavored to summarize the movements in city size and warmth location of the largest cities, and have recopied our curve of the path of supremacy. It will be seen that the three curves correspond as closely as could be expected from the fragmentary and uncertain data regarding only one criterion of civilization. These figures are especially useful to assist our evaluation of various civilizations, as Athens compared with Rome, or as showing the great importance of Carthage, Damascus and Bagdad.

Not only the direction of culture's development (whether upward or downward), but also its speed, is reflected in the movements across heat latitudes. Especially striking are the parallelisms between the rates of northing and the unprogressive, weary vicissitudes of the first 2400 years, when civilization would rise from near barbarism only to fall back thither repeatedly, and then after 1000 B. C. and the introduction of iron, the almost sustained rise to the grandeur and fall of Rome, then the slow recovery in the Dark Ages and the faster progress in medieval and modern times.

It is very significant that also *within* each nation civilization has moved coldward in progressing. In practically every country culture has appeared first along the warm edge, and has progressed coldward as it developed. Greek civilization began in Crete and ended in Constantinople. The leadership of Italy passed from Sicily through Rome to Milan, and that of Spain from Cadiz to Madrid and Barcelona. German culture began along the Rhine and spread gradually east-northeast perpendicularly across the isotherms—lines of equal heat (see chart of isotherms on p. 000). The nations which are exceptions prove the rule. These are the countries north of the isotherm of 50° F., 10° C., the very significant line which traces the ridge of contemporary civilization and is shown heavier on our chart.<sup>9</sup> Within each country *south* of this "ridge" isotherm (and north of 70° F.) the banner of civilization has passed from south to north, while in each country *north* of the ridge, civilization has always been highest along the warm edge of that country. The obvious explanation of this unchangedness in the cold countries is that the highest culture yet attained, that found along the most favorable sections of the 50° isotherm, is suited only to

the warmest edge of these countries, if to that; but when civilization has evolved further and its ideal or "ridge" isotherm has become a colder one, the northern countries will experience the same internal transfer of regional supremacy that the southern nations have. This always happened in the past when a country lay to the north of the ridge isotherm of that epoch.

The importance of a mean annual temperature appropriate to the extant level of culture is strikingly illustrated by the manner in which civilization today closely clusters about that ridge isotherm of 10° C. In different longitudes along this line the culture is of very different grade, because many other factors than temperature exert this influence, such as lack of storms in mountain-shielded regions. But all the highest civilization that the world possesses is grouped about this isotherm, as will be evident from the data given below of the world's cities having populations of over two millions. Here again we have taken size of cities as a good criterion of civilization, but have added certain valuable appraisals of the rank in moral civilization of the regions (such as northern France) in which each city is situated. Drawn from Huntington's "Civilization and Climate," these were made by geographers and other specially competent people residing all over the world, and rank the regions according to their energy, morality, intelligence and all such moral qualities. The population statistics are the latest obtainable.<sup>10</sup>

It will be noted that the average difference from 50° F. is only 3.05°, and if we consider only the five largest cities, which are the acknowledged leaders of civilization, the average departure is only 1.2°, and the average temperature 49.5°.

The cities of between one and two millions are, in order: Philadelphia, Boston, Buenos Ayres, Ozaka, Hankau, Constantinople, Calcutta, Moscow, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Rio, Pekin, Shanghai and Mexico, and their average temperature 57.1°. Taking all cities together, the correlation between temperature and regional vigor is .92.<sup>11</sup>

We may now consider it established that civilization has tended to move coldward while advancing, and warmward when declining. To account for the fact, various theories have been proposed beside the one defended herein. It is said, for example, that it was the irruption of northern barbarians in the last days of the Roman Empire which drove civilization southward at the same time that it was declining. It may be doubted whether the German barbarians necessarily hampered civilization greatly. They

<sup>9</sup>The southern hemisphere is in practically all its land area climatically hopeless for leadership in civilization, so we have ignored it herein, although it offers much support to our thesis and no contradictions.

Cities	Temperature Difference			Year	Regional	
	C.	F.	from 50° F.		Population	Vigor
New York	10.6	51.1	1.1	1920	7,635,000	100
London ..	10.3	50.5	.5	1911	7,521,685	100
Paris ....	9.9	49.8	.2	1911	4,115,000	99
Berlin ...	9.1	48.2	1.8	1910	3,974,300	99
Chicago ..	8.8	47.8	2.2	1920	3,025,000	95
Petrograd.	3.7	38.7	11.3	1915	2,318,645	82
Tokyo ...	13.7	56.7	6.7	1916	2,244,796	83
Vienna ..	9.7	49.4	.6	1914	2,149,800	94
Average .	9.47	49.0	3.05	1916	4,116,778	94

<sup>10</sup>American city populations are derived from the 1920 census, increased to a "metropolitan district" figure in the proportion of the 1910 city and metropolitan district figures. Foreign city statistics likewise include one or more suburbs, save in the case of Petrograd, Tokyo, Vienna, Buenos Ayres, Ozaka, Moscow, Peking and Shanghai.

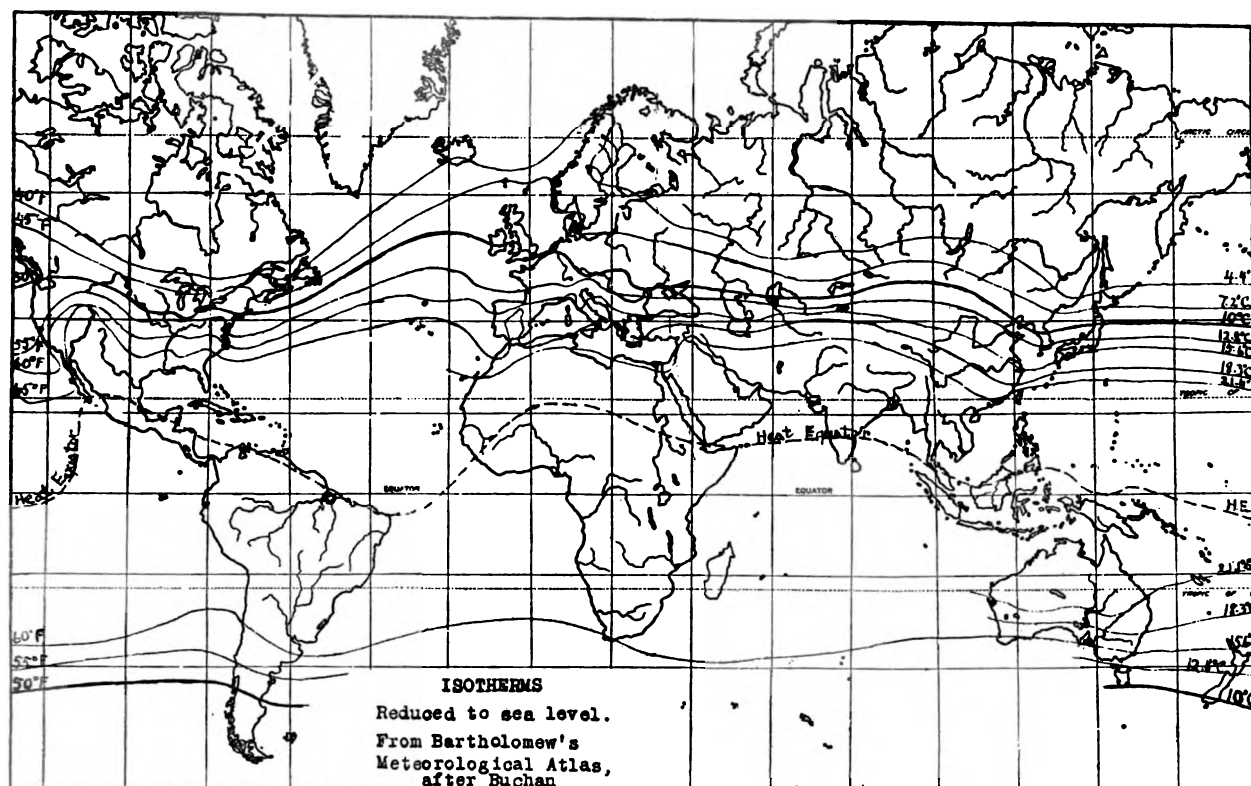
<sup>11</sup>All the variations above or below 10° C. and 100 rank were treated as positive, and Pearson's formula was applied. Mexico was overlooked, but would hardly alter the correlation.

quickly adopted Rome's religion and much of her culture; Carthage thrived under their rule; and they were of the same race as the Normans, who, sailing to warmer climes in Normandy, Ireland and Sicily, adopted the foreign cultures with famous celerity. The fact of invasion alone affords no good reason for the southward movement of civilization from Milan to Carthage. But culture *was* declining, and we observe that its leadership went southward. As to *why* it deteriorated, for once no explanation is offered, but a doubt is ventured that invasions drove it out of the north.

But even if the argument from barbarian irruptions were valid (and it is true that in most periods of decadence there have occurred invasions by barbarians from colder countries, damaging the northern part of

of theories, chosen like blocks of wood from a scrap-heap by hit-and-miss hunting, a different form to fit each need, a different explanation to suit each section of a unified movement, will prove anything, or, rather, nothing. Only a single, consistent theory can satisfactorily explain a correlation observed to be very close and enduring.

There are but five other and consistent theories known to the writer, and none fits the facts so well. One is that the isotherms have been moving northward, Europe growing warmer. But the evidence of plant life shows that the warmth of Europe has increased but a degree or two, if at all, in the last 2000 years. Another theory is that civilization has spread by imitation, the torch of culture being passed to neighbor nations. This is almost wholly true; yet



the cultural area more than the southern), still this would not account for the *northward* movements of civilization nor adequately for the southward ones, and would explain only 5 or 10 of the 58 centuries in view. So is it with many other explanations, such as that the great nations of today are those possessing coal and iron, or that a primitive civilization is assisted by rivers and a higher one by seaports, or that nations on peninsulas or large islands will prosper. Each of these theories helps to explain the prominence of individual nations—of Greece, for example, as preceding Bohemia, or of England in the 19th century—but they do not explain the *whole movement*, the close correlation through 5800 years between culture and cold. A miscellaneous collection

the beacon light of cultural supremacy has been lighted now east, now west, passing in most erratic manner over thousands of miles in the same heat latitude, from Constantinople to China, perhaps, from Bagdad to Spain, generally westward, yet most irregularly, and never moving far *across* the isotherms unless in accordance with our statement of the correlation of culture and cold. Bonacina suggests that perhaps nations, like individuals, mature more slowly in cold climates; but he gives no explanation for this strange idea, and this theory ignores the warmward retrogressions.

A much better theory is advanced by Dr. Huntington in "Civilization and Climate." He has proved that there was more rain in earlier millenniums in

such countries as Palestine and southern Italy, and presumably more cyclonic storms, with their mental stimulus from daily variations of temperature. With the arid and monotonous desert belt of Saharan climate gradually moving northward, civilization would naturally be pushed toward the pole, and it always tends, Huntington claims, to be highest on the belt of maximum storminess. But the theory has too many weak parts, particularly in its connection with historic civilization. The variations in rainfall required, for example, by the rings of growth of the California big trees do not correspond to the ups and downs of civilization. In particular, the greatest southward movement occurred at just the wrong time to agree with the trees. The fall of Rome came in the latter years of an 800-year period of increasing drought, which doubtless had something to do with the catastrophe. But if changing storminess were the cause of geographic movements of civilization, the abode of culture should have gone north, to Gaul or Germany. Instead it went southward to the edge of the desert, to Carthage, Alexandria and Bagdad.

It should be said that Professor Huntington's theory refers rather to vigor of civilization, independent progressiveness, than to the wealth, learning, empire and other elements of mainly material culture with which we are dealing here. Clovis and Charlemagne were more *vigorous* than Harûn-al-Rashid, very likely because from the movement of the storm belt they now enjoyed a more varied climate. But they were not so civilized.

In the New World, too, the distribution of vigor, present and past, may be according to variability of climate; but the location of culture rather supports our own theory. When America was explored in the 16th century, its climates being approximately the same as today, its highest culture was in the plateaus of Mexico and Peru, which are indeed cool; but this culture had originated in the baking lowlands of Guatemala, and made its closest approach to civilization proper in Yucatan, on the heat equator. Tribes next in cultural rank were those of our southwest plains, and then those of our southern states and other warm regions and the temperate northwest coast, while our northern states east of the Rockies, with a climate almost ideal, as Huntington finds, for (a modern) civilization, supported only the hardy but savage Algonquins and a group of Iroquois little higher in the arts of life. The New World is another demonstration that the same kind of climate is not ideal for all grades of civilization.

To combine Huntington's theory with that of this paper, it may be said that location near a main storm path, with the resultant daily variations of temperature, tends to give a population energy, achievement and empire. This belt of storms has probably moved northward during history. But while the banner of civilization tends to follow these varied skies that make creative lands, it tends more strongly to match its degree of culture with an appropriate degree of temperature, as is made very evident by the four occa-

sions when declines of civilization have been matched by southward trends, and by the lack of correlation between past rainfall and trans-isothermic movements of the banner of civilization, and between the distribution of storms and culture in the Americas of 1500. Storminess affects vigor and progressiveness and the location of leadership, especially as to longitude; but mainly temperature governs the latitude in which it will be found.

Another explanation for the northward drift ignores climate entirely, substituting race. Written history falls into two sharply distinct eras, one before, say, 700 B. C., in which civilization seemed to make no permanent progress, but only repeated four and one-half times over a rather regular cycle of sudden rises and slow decays, while in great contrast the second era rejoices us with an almost sustained progress. There must have been some new and critical factor, or several, which brought in this era of permanent progress; we have hinted that this was *iron*, but it might have been the Nordic (Indo-European, Aryan) race. The stocks of the first era were purely Mediterranean and Asiatic, but beginning with Persia, Miletus and Athens there entered a slight infusion of that blond race which had made its first emphatic entrance on the world stage in the siege of Troy. Since that time the percentage of Nordic blood in the nations successively dominant has regularly increased and twice diminished in a correlation with the development and declines of culture, which is about as regular as the correlation of culture with blood. For the Nordics, entering Europe from north of the Black Sea, spread fanwise west and southward, in diminishing purity the farther they progressed, so that although their *languages* reached even Sicily and Portugal, their *stock* hardly affected the extreme south of Europe at all, and the distribution of Nordic blood became in close agreement with the isotherms, blondness and cold varying in parallel everywhere, save where later eastern Europe was affected by the historic invasions of Turanians.

With the progress of civilization in the second era thus correlating as closely with Nordic infusion as with cold, we must seek other evidence as to which, or which chiefly, has been the determining factor in the geographic movements of European leadership. The racial theory singly would require ignoring the correlation of culture and cold in the first era, and while this is here not very consistent, nor based on many centers, it is still evidence of some weight. Another objection to the racial explanation is that it is entirely unproved that the Mediterranean race is incapable of or hampering to civilization. That race which has been the main element in the Greeks, Romans and Jews cannot easily be held incapable of the highest civilization. Furthermore, if climatic influence be barred, it is necessary to assume not only that more Nordic blood has been necessary to higher civilization, but also that too much would be prejudicial to a culture of a certain grade, so that in the two declines of culture it was necessary for

leadership to go southward, seeking less Nordic blood and more Mediterranean. While this assumption, that Nordic blood is needed for a high civilization, but bad for a low one, is a quite possible supposition, there is no evidence that I know of that a Nordic infusion is ever a hindrance.

Therefore, attractive as the racial explanation may be to some people, I hold it certainly not the sole cause of the northward drift of civilization. But it may well be a helping cause, both the northing and splendid progress of civilization in the second era being favored not only by iron for men's tools, but by Nordic iron in their souls.

To restate our preferred theory of the matter, an essential consideration determining the scene of world leadership in civilization, although by no means the only consideration, is mean annual temperature. This almost invariably grows colder as the degree of civilization rises, and warmer when it falls. Many other factors, such as storminess, trade routes, invasions, natural resources, race, concurrently affect the fate of nations, but mean annual temperature keeps all the variations within 9° F., usually 8°, of a mean appropriate for that particular degree of civilization, when this is the leader of the world. The reasons for this connection between civilization and temperature are:

(1) The greater the heat, the easier it is, on the whole, to get a living by agriculture, but the higher the civilization, the less it depends upon agriculture; (2) advance of civilization brings increasing power to dwell in a cold climate and to do efficient and important work within doors; (3) an increasingly complex civilization demands more responsibility and stability, characteristics of cool climates and of the Nordic race; (4) physical efficiency is best promoted by a warmish temperature (64°), and mental by a cool climate (40°), while civilization in its evolution depends increasingly upon the mind. A northern climate, with more of stimulating variety from day to day and season to season and with its prevailing coolness and freedom from hot, stupefying summers, makes possible more *thinking* and self-control, and a higher civilization builded thereupon than was ever possible in Egypt or in Rome. And probably the Nordic race is a further northward-pulling influence.

If the final purpose of science is control, the next to final purpose is prediction. If we have established for the past the thesis that civilization moves coldward while progressing, we can apply it to the future. For most of us still believe, as we did so confidently before 1914, that civilization will continue to progress, for some centuries at least. Insofar as the racial theory is accepted, it devises the future to western North America, Germany, the western Slavic lands, and finally Holland and Scandinavia. But our preferred climatic theory leads slightly differently. We have described the present ridge isotherm, of 50° F., which bisects the greatest urban regions of the world and marks the present locus of the very highest civilization. Well, when civilization has progressed to a still higher type—? Then shall empire, cultural

leadership at least, pass on to the colder climes, as it has done so many times before. Detroit, Montreal, Halifax, Stockholm, Riga, Petrograd, all have between 47° and 88°. There may be trouble ahead anent the transfers of leadership. We have a war on now, called the Treaty of Versailles. The belt of ideal temperature has in the past swept across France, and now blesses only its departments wrecked by the cool destroyers. The diamond belt of empire lies, and has lain for a generation, fair over the industrial regions of Germany.

Scandinavia has in recent decades been efflorescent, sprouting with life, as if preparing to lead the world next. Russia, rousing herself from a sleep of ages, has beaten back the allied world. In 1914 the most virile architecture was being built in the apartment houses of Berlin. In 2000 it will perhaps be found in Detroit and Copenhagen, in 2100 in Montreal, Christiania and Memel.

Farther we need not go. There is no necessity for civilization to be driven into Arctic snows; the law of coldward progress could be restated in such terms as would hold true for the past, yet not require northward journeying indefinitely in the future. But that will require strange new houses and industries that cannot be discussed here. I see no reason to think that this 5000-year-old process will be altered within the 20th century.

There are some who believe, many who fear, that civilization, instead of progressing, may now be approaching a sixth decline. Their fears may be increased by the drooping curve which the graph shows from 1500 to 1920, a slowing-up of the coldward movement when one would have expected an acceleration. But other explanations are possible than that this is the beginning of a decline: (1) The previous declines have not had preliminary retardations. (2) The droop may be a mere accident, from other forces. If Chicago or Berlin should presently take the unquestioned lead, the droop would be more than straightened out. (3) Civilization may be approaching its northern limit, as suggested with doubt above, although not its cultural limit. (4) The droop may be due to a too rapid northing in the 16th century, when the focus of civilization, for reasons not of temperature, had to jump in its northward progress from the northern Mediterranean to the English Channel, and therefore arrived too soon in the north. The natural mid-way points would have been on the west coast of France; and la Rochelle did at one time, under the Huguenots, show great activity and commercial prominence. But the French west coast lacked water transportation routes binding it to a great surrounding region, nor had it the best seamen nor so varied a climate (especially north of la Rochelle) as the Channel lands; so the belt of empire swept over it, hardly halting.

So with these four explanations of harmless augury we need not fear the drooping of the curve. On toward the Pole Star the ship of destiny sails yet.

# Some English History Text-Books Two Centuries Ago

BY CAROLINE A. J. SKEEL, D.LIT., READER IN HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

History teachers nowadays, who have an ample choice of well-written and well-illustrated text-books, may look back with some compassion on the meager resources of their predecessors two centuries ago. In the early eighteenth century the English history text-book most commonly used seems to have been *Medulla Historiae Anglicanae*, the work of William Howell, Fellow of Magdalene College, Cambridge; it was first published in 1679 and passed through several editions (though without his name), the last appearing in 1766. The British Museum contains but one copy, dated 1687; in the preface is an interesting passage on the value of history: "It is indeed that telescope by which we see into distant Ages and take up the Actions of our Forefathers with as much evidence as the News of the Last Gazette: it is the Mirror that represents the various Transactions of Times past, and shews us the Dress of Antiquity. . . . It is in a word the last Will and Testament of our deceased Progenitors." The matter is arranged under reigns, and the style is clear and concise. Some attention is paid to colonial development; the voyages of Drake and Frobisher are mentioned and under James I is the entry: "A.D. 1606. Virginia was planted with an English colony. It was first discovered A.D. 1584 by Sir Walter Raleigh, who is said to have first brought that charming weed Tobacco into England. The Bermudas and New England were also made English Plantations." There is no mention however of the Pilgrim fathers. Some of the incidents recorded are very trivial, for example, a plague of mice in Essex in 1580, blazing stars portending disasters, in 1612 and 1664, and a great whale that came up the Thames as far as Greenwich in 1658. The historical judgments pronounced are sometimes curious; of Charles II it is said that "he was a Prince who saw Fortune in all her Aspects, and though he tasted abundantly of her Favours, yet he may be called King of Sufferings; having unhappily suffered two things too long, Banishment in the beginning of his Reign and Plots in the latter end of it."

A larger compendium of English history was the translation of Rapin's *Histoire d'Angleterre*, of which several editions were published from 1786 onwards. But in 1787 there appeared a little book which from the teacher's point of view has much more interest than either of the books already mentioned. The title is: "The History of England, being a Compendium adapted to the capacities and memories of Youth at School and likewise useful for all others who have weak memories, and would willingly retain what they read of the English History. Carefully and impartially extracted from, and supported by the Authority of, the best Historians both ancient and modern, viz. Julius Caesar (fifteen others are enumerated), with

Declamations, Verses and Orations in Latin, Greek and English, interspers'd by way of Prologue, Interludes and Epilogue. Performed before a large Assembly of Gentry and Clergy, by the Gentlemen of the Publick Grammar School at Holt in Norfolk at their Christmas Breaking-up in 1785."<sup>1</sup> In true eighteenth-century fashion the book is dedicated to the Hon. Col. Augustine Earle, of Heydon in Norfolk, whose son was a pupil at Holt School. The author, Mr. John Holmes, the headmaster, was a man of some ingenuity and courage: he had already exhibited at his "Publick Breakings-up" such substantial fare as "A compendious System of Geography ancient and modern with the use of the Globes; a compendious General Draught of Modern History; A Dissertation on the Olympic and Circensian Games of the Greeks and Romans," etc., etc. He tells us that the English history performance met with general approbation at the time, though later on he was censured by "Gentlemen of Figure in the Neighbourhood, who were not there, but say they heard it was designedly calculated to serve a Party." Mr. Holmes had the germ of the idea which has been recently worked out by Mr. F. H. Hayward in his Books of School Celebrations in honor of men such as Alfred the Great, Pasteur and Lister, Sir Philip Sidney, Turner and Watts.

After the dedication comes the preface, spoken by the head scholar, whose opening sentence comes home to all teachers. "A School, like Human Life, is never at one Stay, but always in a continu'd Mutation: In it we are for ever thrusting one another off the Stage." A word of praise follows for history and geography: "without them we remain ever in a kind of Infancy which leaves us strangers to the rest of the world and profoundly ignorant of all that has gone before us, or even now surrounds us." Then comes a declamation, after which the solid part of the performance begins. The history of Britain is gone over, period by period, from the days of the Druids to the accession of George II. First a boy is called upon to describe the island of Great Britain, pointing out on the globe the places mentioned; the story of Caesar's invasion of Britain is then told, with the Whiggish footnote: "There seems to be something in our Climate that inspires with a more than ordinary love of Liberty; for never sure did men behave braver than these poor unciviliz'd Britons, according to Caesar's own Account, who is thought here to make the best of his own Story." After a description of the Heptarchy comes a quaint interlude upon "the Axe," in which occasion is taken to show the loyalty of the school to the Hanoverian succession:

<sup>1</sup> There is a copy in the British Museum and also, I am told, at Holt School.

"But oh! by impious subjects once defil'd  
The Blood of Charles the First by one was spill'd!  
Which fatal stain that we may wash away,  
Obedience to our Sovereign let us pay;  
Great George, who justly rules, let's justly love,  
The truest Pattern of the Power above."

The chapter on the later Saxon kings contains those venerable errors respecting Alfred's supposed foundation of the University of Oxford, and his equally mythical institution of juries and division of England into shires. The mention of Alfred's interest in learning gives the opportunity for a "Greek Admonitory Oration," addressed by the head scholar to his school fellows, and consisting of ten pieces of good advice from Apollo and the Muses. The account of the Danish and Norman kings is followed by a Latin "Encomium upon that notable instrument of War, the Scaling Ladder." The chapters on the Plantagenet, Lancastrian and Yorkist kings show much sound sense in the omission of mere lists of battles, and in the insertion of details that would have an interest for the boys, such as the conveyance of John's crown and treasure to Lynn (about thirty miles from Holt), the foundation of Eton and Winchester, the career of Dick Whittington and the work of Caxton. The section on the Tudors contains a rather neat description of Henry VIII: "He was very learned, valiant and liberal, but at the same time proud, passionate and cruel." Mention is made of Erasmus' sojourn in England, Colet's foundation of St. Paul's School, and the invention of muskets. An amusing footnote arouses the sympathy of present-day teachers: "Young Persons being apt not rightly to distinguish between Reformation, Restoration, and Revolution, it mayn't be improper here to remark to 'em that the Reformation was . . ." (then follows a brief explanation of each term). Under Mary's reign we find not the usual description of the Smithfield martyrdoms, but an account of the foundation of Holt School by Sir John Gresham. Under the reign of Elizabeth is a note of the foundation of the Royal Exchange by Sir Thomas Gresham, nephew of Sir John, and the defeat of the Armada suggests a patriotic footnote on England's naval power: "'Tis certain the British Navy was not then nor ever in the order it is at present, whether in regard to the Condition of the Ships, the Discipline on Board, or the Pay of the Seamen." With the death of Elizabeth the fourth act ends, and a break is afforded by a description of "Bombs, or the War Mortar-Piece."

Mr. Holmes must have felt himself upon dangerous ground when he dealt with the Stuart period. Certainly, James I was remote enough for the safe quotation of the French epigram:

"Under King Eliza the English were seen  
As grand as now mean under Jemmy their Queen."

But the reign of Charles I is dismissed in little over a page, and there is scant reference to the details of the Civil War. Cromwell's foreign policy is praised: "He made the Dutch buy their Peace dear: French and Spanish su'd for his Friendship,

the King of Sweden thought it an Honour to be his Ally." Under Charles the Second's reign the foundation of the Royal Society is mentioned, as well as the Plague and the Fire of London. Recent history is treated with cautious brevity, for party feeling ran high in the England of 1785. Still, Mr. Holmes does not conceal his Whig view of the Revolution and its hero, William III, "one of the greatest men of his age, always the declar'd Enemy of Tyranny and Oppression, the Preserver of his own Country, the Deliverer of England and the Defender of the Freedom of Europe. Nor can he refrain from a note on the Treaty of Utrecht: "At the Rehearsal I had call'd this Treaty of Peace at Utrecht an infamous Treaty: which Epithet (as I have no Intentions to displease anyone), I'm advised by a judicious Friend or two to omit, and leave everybody to judge for themselves." But no details are given after 1714, and the history of England concludes with the accession of "King George II, his present Majesty, who is now in the ninth year of his Reign. Whom God preserve." A description of the Duke of Marlborough's engineers or miners in "Hudibrasticks" was then performed by "seven of the least Boys in the School," and the performance ended with the words of the head scholar: "Finitur, Domini Dignissimi, et Gratias Agimus."

In printing the account of the Christmas performance Mr. Holmes added several footnotes, for example one dealing with the discovery of Virginia, the introduction of tobacco into England, and the acquisition of Barbadoes, St. Kitts, Nevis, Jamaica and New York. After the Epilogue he added a Latin version of the twelve chapters of historical narrative.

The boys of the Holt Grammar School were fortunate in their headmaster. He was evidently an enthusiastic student and teacher of history; although he used Rapin very largely, yet he also quotes not only from the classical historians, but from Bede and Matthew, Paris, Camden, Clarendon and Burnet. His was not mere scissors-and-paste work like that of the compilers who put together the dreary catechisms based on Goldsmith's History of England. In the early eighteenth century it was a great thing if a teacher realized that "next to the Histories of the Greeks and Romans, there seems to be none which affords greater variety of memorable transactions than that of England." Mr. Holmes' compendium, though it contains several errors, has many good points, and anticipates such modern devices as the teaching of history by means of historical plays. We may hope that his pupils—and possibly their parents—gained through his efforts a more clear "Comprehension of the Principal Historical Transactions of their Native Country."

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# The Bibliographer as Historian

BY ELBRIDGE COLBY

The author of one of our best histories of modern Europe, in talking with me one day concerning a professor of English who had been chiefly spoken of in our presence as a distinguished "bibliographer," turned in my direction and said, "What use is a bibliographer?" and then proceeded to state that he thought the facts and ideas in any given book more significant than the number of editions of that book, the principles and theories of any given writer more important than an absolutely complete list of the publications by that writer. Since the date of that conversation with Professor Hayes, and after some intensive bibliographical training, I have transferred some of my researches into the historical field, from Carlyle to the Chartists, from Chaucer to Roger Wendover, from Grub Street and the English lake district to parliament and the factories of Lancashire, from Boswell and Johnson to Procopius and Belisarius. Before so doing, however, I embarked upon and completed two pieces of what might be called purely bibliographical work: "Bibliographical Notes on Theodore Winthrop," published by the New York Public Library, and "A Bibliography of Thomas Holcroft," published in *Notes and Queries*, July 4, 1914-March 25, 1915. In looking back, now, upon these performances, I sincerely regret that the effort put into them was not concerned more intimately with more historically important personages; but I likewise feel that the methods I learned, the knowledge of the details of book publication I acquired, and the bibliographical technique mastered can be distinctly valuable in the field of history; though the historian must of course have knowledge of other methods, and must first have learned other details of a more purely historical nature, and must first have mastered the purely historical technique. Bibliographical work can, therefore, I am sure, be valuable in the field of history, particularly in that portion devoted to political and social theory; and I am now prepared to answer from the standpoint of a historian that question put to me several years ago.

Bibliographical work, in the highly technical sense,<sup>1</sup> consists of a study of the circumstances of the publication of books, the number of editions, the distribution, and the reception at the hands of reviewers and commentators, all in comparison with similar books of a similar character and of the same period. At the end of his researches, the bibliographer can generalize and can state with some degree of accuracy how well the book under discussion represented, or even influenced, prevailing opinion. Some distinctly literary scholars who like to make gods of

their subjects, will generalize in terms of "influence." I do not think that a pamphlet can alter opinions, any more than I believe a newspaper editorial can directly sway votes. To my mind, the printing of an editorial from the *Call* in the *Chicago Tribune* would be as futile as a copy of a *Call* left on the doorstep of J. P. Morgan, or even as Shelley's radical pamphlets in a conservative age scattered from Dublin balconies or sent to sea in bottles. I mean that we can judge the constituency by what the constituents read. I mean that you can measure the respective conservative or liberal thought of an age by comparing the respective circulations of conservative and liberal books and periodicals. Publishers and editors give their constituents what they want; and if they give them the wrong thing, the publisher has no need for a second edition and the editor does not repeat the unpopular opinions. For instance, Wells' *Mr. Britling Sees it Through* succeeded tremendously; *God, the Invisible King*, did not. For instance, Seumas MacManus's articles on Irish affairs are successful and continue to appear in those of our cities with a goodly Irish-American population, and only in those. For instance, the British Military Mission failed to get the press of the country to publish a popularly written piece of British propaganda on Persia by Sir Valentine Chirol, and soon thereafter one of our best magazines printed an article on the same topic condemning the British imperialistic ambitions in the same area. Again, while the so-called official, but popularly written, organ of Soviet Russia in the United States is struggling for a circulation, the newspapers and magazines of the country seized upon and quoted at length—sometimes even in full—a learned Supreme Court decision concerning alien Bolsheviks which was written in anything but popular language. It is very much the fashion to speak of the "influence" of this or that piece of writing. But if the audience is unfavorable, there will probably be no influence; and if the audience is already favorable, the amount of the influence is diminished and the author is successful not because he has convinced people but because he has, as a professional penman, succeeded in crystallizing their vague feelings and emotions into concrete and logical concepts. And the author can only do this when his audience is prepared, either in circumstances or in opinion, for the ideas which he is putting forth. As John Thelwall said: "Hume's commentaries slept for thirty years, and the Utopia for centuries, on the shelves of the learned, and even the popular language of Thomas Paine would have provoked no alarming discussion if the general condition of mankind had not disposed them to exclaim: 'We are wretched, let us inquire the cause.'"

Before proceeding further, and giving some examples of the value of bibliographical data in measuring qualitatively and quantitatively the political

<sup>1</sup> It is only so that I shall discuss it, for every historian will be quick to admit the value of such books as Seignobos, of such tasks as that of Gross, and of such brief "chapter" bibliographies as add tremendously to the value of the Cambridge Modern History or even to Hayes' own *Political and Social History of Modern Europe, 1515-1915*.

thought of a period, it will be well to investigate for a moment the particular character of such data as some gentle students of the future may bring to bear as evidence.

There is, first, the usual bibliographical problem of obtaining a complete list of the writings of the author under discussion. This is important for two reasons: (a) we want to be sure that he has not contradicted himself; (b) we want to see the result of particular writings upon the public attitude towards his work. For example, the British radical, Thomas Holcroft, was a moderately successful, though very inferior, novelist and dramatist; he was indicted in 1794 for high treason in connection with the London clubs desirous of parliamentary reform; from all accounts his release and that of his fellows was popularly approved. The usual lists of his publications contain very few items dated later than 1794, and one is led by his *Memoirs* to believe that he lived the usual old age and died at peace with the world. However, when I had completed my bibliographical labors in connection with Holcroft, I had amassed an amazing number of unsuccessful publications, I had found him doing some of the most obscure and ill-paid sort of hackwork, far beneath the dignity of a successful writer. I had been able to revise completely the customary opinion of his declining years and to show that he found it difficult to get an audience either through the spoken word on the stage or through the printed word in the book-shop, and further that this ill-fortune was directly attributable to the unpopularity of his radical opinions respecting parliamentary reform and the administration of government. By bibliographical work, I was enabled to indicate that the British people, in the large majority, were not only unfavorably disposed toward the subject of parliamentary reform, but that they even ridiculed, hissed, and condemned those who were known to have been advocates of it.

The second usual bibliographical problem is that of obtaining a complete list of the editions of any particular book. I have in mind an anonymous book published in London in 1795, which contained a strong plea for peace and which attacked all militaristic ideas. On the face of it, and according to the title pages, this book seemed to have been fairly successful and to have had at least six editions, or separate printings. But the bibliographer never trusts a title page. By comparing the printing of the text itself, the pagination, the arrangement of the signatures, even the appearance of several irregularities in the printing, he is often able to show that what looks like a second edition, is only the unsold first edition with a new title page and a lying legend; and again he is often able to show that even when another publisher gets out what appears to be a new edition, it is simply unsold sheets bound up with a new title page and a new date. If the number of editions is to be taken into consideration at all, the historian must be on his guard against these tricks of unscrupulous booksellers who made the early and late eighteenth century such a perplexity to twentieth

century bibliographers. The chief danger here is not that something may be omitted, though that is always possible, but that a book may appear to have been more popular than it really was. So, in this case under discussion, I was able to conclude, on this evidence at least, that pacifist ideas were not popular in the 1790's, since not only were there not six editions of this pamphlet, but the booksellers had trouble disposing of even the first edition, and had to resort to camouflage.

In the third place, there is the question of comparative and critical bibliographies, those which compare the success of one book with that of another. (a) The Tractarian Movement was supposed to have convulsed England for about ten years; that is what some writers would have us believe. Yet the skeptical historian will remember that the nation was at the same time thinking of the Reform Bill, and of Chartism, and of Indian affairs. The question of bibliography will tell how many of the *Tracts for the Times* were actually circulated, and read; and then, if we compare the circulation of the *Tracts for the Times* with the contemporary circulation of other religious pamphlets in the same decade, we can be reasonable and sensible about our conclusions in the matter. (b) Lecturers on English literature have a favorite method of speaking of the "Romantic Movement" in glowing terms as a great reflection of the French Revolution, of citing Burns and Coleridge and their comments on the revolution, of recalling the early enthusiasms of Wordsworth, and of quoting with significant emphasis the stirring lines of Shelley and Byron, until the impression prevails that all England was talking and reading revolutionary propaganda, when any historian knows that England was by and large supporting the conservative ministry and was talking of the prospects of defeating the foreign enemies and raising the price of Consols. Their attitude might well be expressed in the words of Castlereagh to Bentinck in 1818: "It is not insurrection we want in Italy or elsewhere. We want disciplined force under sovereigns we can trust." Bibliographical comparisons will indicate that Shelley was not a popular poet, that Shelley's most revolutionary poems were the ones that remained unpublished until long after, that the narrative poems of Moore and Scott and Byron were more successful than any revolutionary sentiments, that Scott's novels were far better received than any radical opinions, and that the reviewers were almost unanimous in their condemnations of liberal tendencies. (c) Godwin has been spoken of as the father of modern anarchism, but if we except Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, it can safely be said that he was not the father of anything. *Political justice* had so little an audience that it might almost be neglected except as an interesting example of closet philosophy. It was even said in the privy council that there was little use of prosecuting Godwin since a book which cost two guineas could do no harm among people who had not two shillings to spare. But across the channel we find that Rousseau in his turn is looked upon as one

of the founders of the revolution and as the apostle to the Jacobins; and a study of his bibliography lends some color of truth to this generalization, for his books were so widely read that even the humble and almost illiterate framers of *cahiers* declared almost in his words, "We shall be as equal before the law as we are equal in the state of nature." Rousseau crystallized opinion and gave the simple country folk the words by which many of them expressed their *doleances*. And even Rousseau did not completely dominate the field, nor Helvetius, nor Holbach. There are more *cahiers* which do not imitate his opinions than there are that do; and the conservative writings of Bergier were almost as avidly purchased in France and as flagrantly pirated in Amsterdam as those of the "philosophers."

In this third question of comparative and critical bibliographies, if it is really to be of any value at all, the information must be very detailed and very exact. For example, we are all ready to admit that the *Common Sense* published by Thomas Paine, in 1776, just on the eve of the American Declaration of Independence, was one of the first publicly printed manifestations of a desire for complete separation of the colonies from England. It is, therefore, rather desirable to learn exactly in what degree it was favorably received up and down the Atlantic coast, and how much were the profits which Paine contributed to the Continental treasury, especially since Professor Beard and a few other economic interpreters of the actions of our political forebears are ever ready to state that the Continentals prevailed over the Tories because of the influence of a few men. When Mr. H. N. Brailsford says that *Common Sense* had a circulation that marked an epoch in the history of printing, we should like to know exactly what that circulation was, for by measuring the constituency of *Common Sense* we may be able to measure the support given the cause of separation. And even the exact numbers are not enlightening unless we know the price paid, and the degree of distribution, and the opinions of local journalists concerning its sentiments. In England, a few years later, the radical clubs distributed, according to evidence brought out at the trials, 8,962 copies of Paine's *Letter to Secretary*

*Dundas*, and so we are able to judge the extent of the activities of those clubs among the population of England at that time, at least to judge how much they were trying to do, and about how many people they could count upon to be interested in a particular kind of radical opposition to the government to such an extent as to make profitable circularizing. Had we similar figures for *Common Sense*, they might be enlightening.

Finally, there is a fourth kind of bibliographical evidence which bears on political opinion, which is applicable principally to the eighteenth century. It has been so much the habit of historians to center their investigations around the seat of government that they lose their sense of proportion, and what is more to the point, they lose their touch with the common mind. Macaulay inveighed against this attitude and indicated that politics in the eighteenth century were discussed in the coffee houses, as well as in St. Stephens. And politics were likewise discussed in the book-shops; and political matters which were of sufficient interest were capitalized by the publishers in such a way as to yield material for the bibliographer. Let us recall that Edmund Burke delivered a speech in parliament in the fall of the year 1789, and that this speech was later written out more fully and enjoyed an enormous success in the form of a book entitled *Reflections on the French Revolution*. But the most interesting thing about this is that Burke's speech was taken down by "memory" reporters in parliament and appeared almost immediately in an abbreviated form in pamphlet publication. This is the best indication of the interest of the public in certain political topics, the desire of the booksellers to make money led them to select for such practically pirated reproductions those speeches in which they knew that the reading public as a whole were by nature, inclination, prejudice and opinion undoubtedly interested. By reading the *Commons Journal* we can discover what the M.P.'s were talking about; by watching these popular reproductions we can discover what talk was of interest to the people, and that is what is of importance to the historian, if he is to be the historian of a nation and not merely the historian of a few wrangling politicians.

## The Use of Magazines in the Teaching of History\*

BY INEZ ORBISON, GLENNVILLE HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND

One evening, not long ago, one of the high school girls came rushing into the midst of a little social gathering, breathless and very much excited, announcing that she was sorry to be so late, but she'd just had so much fun at the supper table, discussing the Shantung question with her father, that she'd almost forgotten party and all. "And the best of it was,"

\*Reprinted by permission from *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*, January, 1920.

she continued, "he finally had to admit that I did know something about it. And although he didn't agree with me, 'he was glad to find out,' he said, 'that I was at last really learning something worth talking about. He'd seen very little evidence of it before.'"

The retort of a nettled father, of course, not used to having his daughter dispute him, least of all to having her assail the fortifications of his set opinions with facts. But gratifying! And what kind of facts

were those with which she bombarded him—the arraignment of the situation from the viewpoint of this editor or that, or rather, the partisan stand of this politician or that? This type of ammunition he was used to, for displays of such fireworks are almost incessant these days. No, what she marshalled forth was an array of historic factors. For days in the history class, we had been tracing the story of China's past, her relations with her immediate neighbors and with the various European powers, during the period since her isolation first began to be intruded upon—that pathetic story of apparent helplessness. And as we studied we had tried to understand—to trace out the great underlying principles that had determined the course of events, examining the facts to discover their relation to each other for cause and effect, finally, in the light of the past, trying to see the situation of today in its true perspective. Both the girl and her father had gleaned their knowledge of that present-day situation from the same source, but their interpretations of the facts in hand were as diverse as the points of view from which they had judged them. One saw them only in their relation to the immediate present, while the other saw them as a part of a very much larger whole—a factor in a very much more complicated and comprehensive problem.

The topic to be discussed is, I believe, *The Use of Magazines in the Teaching of History*. Should a very strict interpretation of that wording be insisted upon, I fear I should have great difficulty in defending the affirmative side of the question, although I constantly use magazines in all of my classes. I do not use them to teach history. I teach history in order that all human events transpiring today may have a deeper meaning, and to make that meaning clear, just as in the case of the Shantung issue, the present must be studied in its relation to the past.

I quite agree with a recent writer in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* who deplores the "current-events mindedness" of the present generation. "By the current-events mind," he explains, "I mean that development of mind which sees the events of today with little of their relation to one another; which has but a slight idea of the great historical process of which the happenings of today are the expression or of which they form a part; which draws conclusions and teaches lessons from events for propaganda purposes without knowing that they are but fractional parts of something entirely foreign to the thing set forth; and which is captured by passing events and expressions without understanding their implications."<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand, paradoxical as it may seem, it is precisely as a preventative against such current-events mindedness as this, that I most heartily advocate, not the use of magazines in the teaching of history, but the study of magazines (the record of present happenings) along with the study of history (the record of past events) to show the vital organic

connection between the two. As Prof. James Harvey Robinson says: "It is most essential that we should understand our own time; we can only do so through history, and it is the obvious duty of the historian to meet this, his chief obligation."<sup>2</sup> And how can we show this relationship except by studying the two side by side?

To test the results of my own theories, I asked a class the other day what they thought about it. We had studied the history of the partition of Poland—had traced the cause of her downfall, with a careful analysis of its geographical, racial and political aspects, endeavoring to comprehend her problems and if possible to apprehend her mistakes. We then took up a discussion of the reconstructed Poland, struggling to regain her feet and wrestling with the problems of today—so characteristically her same old problems, in a new form, of course, but fundamentally identical. "And will she be able to profit by the lessons of the past," we wondered, "or is it not possible for her to escape the old pitfalls so clearly the ruin of her hopes before of disunion, of an imperialism insisting upon the subjugation of peoples not her own, or a yielding to foreign influence forever threatening her territorial integrity and her political independence?"

The class was tremendously interested in the modern Poland and the present-day situation. When the enthusiasm was at its highest pitch, I suddenly asked, half fearful of the answer I might receive, if they would not favor devoting all of their time to the study of current events alone. I was gratified beyond expectation with an emphatic chorus of "No's!" "We understand what we have just been discussing, because we knew what had happened before," was one lad's simple but complete diagnosis. "We couldn't appreciate what she is really up against now, if we hadn't studied her history first," volunteered another, "we needed the background."

Then I reversed the question. "Oh, all right, I quite agree that a knowledge of history is necessary," I said, "if you are to come to any real understanding of the present—understanding with insight I mean! Then should we not use all of our time—it is short enough as it is—studying just the history itself, and not continue to digress, as we were always doing, to the magazine topics? You could read those for yourselves!"

"Yes, but we wouldn't," came the prompt response, "or if we did, we wouldn't know enough yet to see the connection."

Then suddenly one of the pupils who certainly had never so much as heard of Dr. McElroy, of Princeton, came forth with exactly the same argument which that professor once used, even reverting to the very same figure of speech to drive the thought home!<sup>3</sup> "Then we wouldn't have any thing but background,"

<sup>2</sup>J. H. Robinson, *The New History*, p. 80.

<sup>3</sup>"Classroom Treatment of Recent Events in Europe and America," an address delivered before the New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers, by Robert McNutt McElroy, of Princeton University.

<sup>1</sup>*HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, October, 1919, "The Current-Events Mind," W. H. Ellison.

she said, "and that certainly wouldn't be worth much in itself—any more than a picture that had nothing in the foreground to look at!"

The most gratifying answer of all, however, came from one of the pupils representative of our foreign element, the son of a Russian Jewish immigrant, and so typical of some 70 per cent. of our Cleveland population, that vast majority that must see the light, if our democracy is to be safe, not only for the world, but for ourselves. Some of our city schools, last year, had to fight hard to keep Bolshevik propaganda from seeping in. In our own school we had only one "effusion." It was this same pupil who one day launched forth with an outburst that would have brought joy to the heart of Lenine himself. He was promptly silenced, of course, in the classroom, but we all know that high school pupils do much more talking among themselves outside of the school room than in, therefore to get this pupil to "see the light" was a matter of no small concern to us all. It was with particular interest that I had been watching the effect which the study of history might have on his views. Imagine the satisfaction, then, with which these words greeted me: "Oh, sure we ought to study current events, too," he said, "because that way we can get the right dope here and when we can go back and set the—the—others straight!"

What type of Americanization work could offer you greater opportunities than this? And are we certain that it is only in the foreign home that there are "others" who need sometimes to be "set straight?" We are passing through one of the most critical phases in all of our history, when as never before we need sound judgment to guide us in our councils. Professor Harding, discussing "What the War Should do for our History Methods," never spoke more truly than when he said: "The war should enforce the old lesson that the present is rooted deep in the past. Just as the biologist and medical scientist invoke the aid of embryology and etiology in dealing with their problems, so the citizen and statesman need the aid of history in dealing with the practical problems of society. Almost none of the questions involved in the present war is capable of intelligent discussion save in the light of history. Serbia and the Balkan question, out of which the struggle immediately grew, requires a knowledge of history for elucidation and settlement. Germany is inexplicable without a knowledge of Bismarck and Frederick the Great, along with Goethe, Schiller, and Martin Luther. So it is with Alsace-Lorraine, Schleswig-Holstein, Poland, Morocco, the Turkish Empire—even Bolshevism, that last and most disquieting of all the problems staring us in the face."<sup>4</sup>

Moreover, he goes on to say: "The war should teach us all to think internationally. . . . Whether the present draft of the League of Nations is adopted as it stands or not, some form of world organization is certain to result, in which we shall have an important part. . . . The history teacher, without

lessening the emphasis on our national ideals and duties, must perform his part in helping to educate the rising generation to a sense of world citizenship." Whether we like it or not—it is not a matter of our own choosing—our period of isolation is forever at an end! America must deal with the other nations of the world, and to deal with them fairly she must deal with them understandingly. This can come about only when her citizens, as well as her diplomats (yea, even her senators), have come to know these fellow-nations sympathetically, through a patient and painstaking study of their history, their traditions, and their struggles in the past, as related to the immediate problems they are struggling so hard to solve right now. Their present and hers is one. Her people, in order to co-operate intelligently with theirs, must be able not only to appreciate the full significance of that relationship, but to view it in its true perspective. This can never be done through a mere perusal of the magazines from week to week, noting the present-day happenings as they break into print. As one writer has so justly said: "In the range each week from China to Peru the pupil will absorb a great deal of information, but it would seem that care is necessary if he is not to become merely a walking depository of miscellaneous facts, rather than an intelligent student of human actions."<sup>5</sup>

On the other hand, however, let me repeat, perspective implies a foreground as well as a background, and it is to small purpose that we study the past if we do not train the pupil to see the connection between that past and the present with which he is so vitally concerned. Historical-mindedness is the balance wheel with which we must steady our judgment. But, pray, let us not be so academic in the development of this most important faculty that—to change the figure—it becomes a sort of a cold-storage product. Let the pupil see now, how and why a knowledge of the past is of value in coping with the problems of today.

And, moreover, let him find out what those problems are, for himself, through the reading of some current periodical—such reading to be directed to the end that he may be so trained that in after life he may go on with such reading understandingly. Let him not read after the manner of those who gulp the morning's news as they gulp their coffee, to the mental as well as the physical indigestion of the vast majority of the masses. But teach him to read with that insight which illumines the page with the light of all the ages.

And how should this be done? An ideal, of course, which none of us could hope to realize fully, toward which each of us must work, after his own manner. In my own classes I endeavor to link up the discussion of practically every series of historic events with the present. If it is the acquisition of the British possessions in India that we are studying, the assignment also inevitably includes a survey of the present

<sup>4</sup>THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, April, 1919, p. 189.

<sup>5</sup>Andrews, *The Use and Abuse of Current Events in History Classes*.

unrest in India, with the plea that they try, in the light of the past, as well as through as full a knowledge as they can acquire of the present situation, to understand the real meaning and significance of the facts in hand. The acquisition of mere facts alone would be futile business. Let the encyclopedia and the World Almanac be such depositories. It is for the wise to appreciate intelligently the bearing of those facts and to act accordingly.

I set no prescribed day for the study of current events in my classes. In Cleveland a board ruling calls for "the equivalent of one recitation a week to be so spent." Practically all of the pupils subscribe for a stated weekly magazine. One day a week, usually, the study is concentrated on the current issue. All the days of all the weeks, however, that magazine or any other, newspapers, monthly periodicals or the latest books are drawn upon for material to bring our text-book study down to date.

I have never been able to use the cut-and-dried lists of questions furnished by some of the magazines. The discussion must fit in with what my own classes are studying. The magazine is there merely as a

valuable source of information from which we may draw as the exigencies arise. Sometimes I give out a list of questions of my own. Sometimes the class is divided up into committees which report topically. History is a living subject. Least of all dare its methods be static!

What magazines do I use? There are three, of course, of which we usually think first, *The Outlook*, *The Independent*, and *The Digest*. I like best to have the pupils take all three, each for a period of the year. Our tastes differ. Some will find greater pleasure in one, others in a second. At the end of the year they will be better able to judge the type of magazine they wish to subscribe to for their own future reading. Last June, after such an experience, when I asked for a vote, I found the choices rather evenly distributed.

But, after all, what we shall use or how we shall use it is a problem that will easily solve itself when once we have come to appreciate fully why we turn to the study at all. I have not tried, therefore, to outline a method. I have endeavored, rather, to give a reason for the faith that is in me.

# The Laboratory Method in the Teaching and Studying of History

BY A. C. WILGUS, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

## I. WHAT THE SYSTEM IS

The laboratory method is, as its name suggests, a method in which history is studied and taught in the laboratory rather than in the classroom, somewhat similar to the manner in which chemistry and physics are studied in the chemical and physical laboratories. Let us imagine a room filled with small tables or desks. On each desk are four or five or perhaps more books. At each desk is a chair. At the side of the room is a blackboard. In the corner or at one end of the room is a desk for the teacher, behind which is a large bookcase containing books and filing boxes. Beside the bookcase is a bulletin board. Upon the walls of the room are maps, charts and pictures. The bell has rung. The pupils come in and each goes to his or her desk. The desks contain drawers and from these the pupils, after unlocking them, take their material—apparatus, if you please—and begin to work. The period is 45 minutes in length, but if the pupil has no class after this present period, and if the room is not in use, he may stay and work as long as he pleases. Also at any other time of the school-hour day he may come and work, provided the room is not in use. (See Sec. III, part 2.) This room we shall call the American History Laboratory to distinguish it from the medieval and modern, English history and ancient history laboratories. Of course it may be necessary to have these four laboratories in the same room; and, if so, each pupil will have a key to his own drawer. We have now looked in upon the laboratory. Let us examine it more closely.

## II. A PARTICULAR STUDY OF THE SYSTEM— THE APPARATUS

1. The desk: The desk is merely a wooden table with several drawers in it, each provided with a lock and numbered the same as any laboratory desk would be. On the top of the desk are book ends between which are several books. Each desk contains an ink-well. Before each desk is a common chair.

2. The books: These consist of two American history textbooks, since this is the American History Laboratory, one book of American history source material, and one medieval and modern history textbook.

3. The outline: Before the pupil, upon his desk, is an outline. This we find to be a topical skeleton-outline—not an outline giving much information, but a guidance outline, merely a bony framework or foundation upon which the pupil is to build his work. The outline has been furnished by the teacher.

4. The notebook: At the side of the pupil is a small filing box which is the only notebook used. In this the periods of American history are tabulated, and divided and sub-divided with various material under each heading. The material here found has been taken from outside reading, as well as from the books before the pupil, and from those found in the bookcases at the end of the room, which we shall call the American history library.

5. The library: Upon these shelves behind the teacher's desk are to be found books of historical fiction as well as of true historical prose tales. Here

also are to be found compilations of American historical poetry and dramas. There are collections of various source materials including biographies and autobiographies as well as books of travel. Here also is to be found an encyclopedia of American history, and a general encyclopedia, together with a dictionary. One of the cases contains a file of newspaper clippings. The whole of the library is under the supervision of the teacher, who charges the pupil with whatever he takes out of the room or to his desk and sees that all are properly returned to their respective places.

6. The newspaper clippings file: This is contained in a regular filing cabinet such as the sectional bookcase companies put out. The clippings have been brought in by the pupils who have been encouraged by the teacher to read the newspapers and clip out anything of historical value that may be found. The clippings are all filed by the teacher or at least under his supervision. The system used for filing may be the regular Dewey-Decimal System or any other that the teacher may find of most convenience. It goes without saying that the pupils must be taught to make accurate note of the date and paper from which the clippings are obtained; otherwise the files would be of little value.

7. Newspapers and periodicals: These can very easily be obtained in the library of the school and consequently it is not necessary to incur an added expense of having them taken separately and placed in the laboratory.

8. The maps: Various maps are to be found upon the walls and deal with important phases of American history. Likewise a stand of maps may be used to advantage in the laboratory.

9. Charts and graphs: These are to be found upon the walls, blackboard, and bulletin board, and illustrate various economic and political movements in American history.

10. Pictures: The pictures are found, like the maps and charts, upon the walls and bulletin board. Very few of the pictures need be framed. In fact the great bulk of the pictures should be small so that they may be posted in handy places about the room. These pictures should include the portraits and cuts of the presidents as well as of many other noted and important people in American history. Likewise many historical scenes should be portrayed in the laboratory.

### III. HOW THE SYSTEM OPERATES

Let us now notice the principle upon which the system operates, the part each pupil plays, and the relation of the teacher to the whole.

1. The principle upon which the system is based: Since this is the laboratory method of teaching and studying history, most of the work is done by the pupils under the constant guidance of the teacher. It is a method whereby the pupils write history and thus study it instead of going to class and reciting after supposedly studying it. It is based upon the well-known fact that if a person works out something for himself, he will remember it a great deal better and

longer than if he has simply read it and then recited upon it. Writing tends to fix ideas in the mind and when the pupils first study around the subject and then study about the subject itself with the purpose of writing it up, they acquire a knowledge of the subject matter, and remember it longer than by other methods. In other words, the pupils learn by doing.

2. The pupil's part: The responsibility, therefore, rests upon the pupil who has a definite object to accomplish, namely, the writing of a brief sketch of the whole of American history. This sounds, indeed, like a formidable task for a senior high school pupil, but in reality it is not as difficult as it would first appear. The pupil has before him the outline of the whole subject which he is to follow, using it as a guide. He has at his command all the material necessary with which to create the finished product. Time and his own aptitude and inclination will determine the result. Of the first, time, more will be said in the discussion of the teacher's part which follows. Here we may say that for the slower pupils, as well as for the other pupils, they may have time, if they care to, to use the laboratory at their vacant periods or when it is not in use. This, however, should be discouraged unless the pupil is naturally slow, or has to make up some period that he has missed on account of absence; otherwise some pupils with fewer classes would finish much quicker than others. (See section v. for a further discussion of this point.)

The pupils should be allowed easy access to all the materials in the laboratory which it is necessary to make use of in their work. They should feel free and be free to consult with the teacher at all times regarding their work.

3. The teacher's part: The teacher should be the pupil's constant adviser and guide. He should see that the books and files are kept in order and in place. He should see that the period being studied at any given time is well illustrated upon the bulletin board by picture, charts, maps and graphs. He should see that the blackboard contains "aids" and "helps" which the pupil may need, and also that a list of references for each subject or period is accessible to the pupils.

The teacher should not let one pupil get too far ahead of the rest, nor too far behind. However, he should not discourage the faster pupils, but should encourage and help the lagging ones—not to the extent, however, that the pupil shall lean upon the teacher as a crutch and let him do his writing, but to use my former simile, as a chemistry or physics instructor would help one of his laboratory pupils in a difficult experiment or when the pupil has gotten behind the rest of the class.

The teacher, of course, provides the outlines for the pupils. These he can make himself or he can buy in book form and have mimeographed or typewritten and given to the pupils. In rare cases the teacher might have the outline written upon the blackboard, but this is much less satisfactory for they are liable to be erased or be "outgrown" by the faster pupils.

The teacher must explain this system very carefully before it is attempted and he must see that the pupils



thoroughly understand what they are to do, so that there will be no time wasted. The teacher, however, must not make the pupils feel that they are under a strain to finish their work on a rigid schedule of time; neither must the factor of speed be introduced to the point where the pupils will race each other to see who will finish first. Accuracy should not be sacrificed for speed. (See sec. v.)

The teacher from time to time should call the whole class together and discuss the progress of the work as well as various individual difficulties that the pupils may have had. The teacher should also, when necessary, hold individual conferences with the pupils and discuss their individual troubles. And in order to keep the pupils all at work on the same period at any given time, the teacher must examine their work every few days. Besides guiding the pupils over the difficult phases of the subject, the teacher must pilot them quickly pass the less important periods of American history. This can be done most effectually and efficiently by calling the whole class together and there discussing it with them. Thus time will be saved to a great extent, less confusion will result, and the work will be more uniform.

#### IV. THE ADVANTAGES OF THE SYSTEM

The one great advantage of this system is that by it the pupils learn by doing. It is the experience of writing that fixes in the student's mind that which he has learned. One might go to school for several years and cover the same ground again and again and still not be any the "wiser"—using a loose term—in the subject, especially if he tries to forget the material as soon as he has finished the course. Many pupils in going to school seem to try to learn only enough to "get by." They either are not interested or they care more for getting something for nothing. In this system, generally more than in other systems, the pupils have to know their subject before they can write. There are exceptions to this, however. (See sec. v.)

Through this factor of experience, then, facts are fixed in the pupil's mind and are retained for a comparatively long time. More, therefore, is generally remembered than in the recitation class where the pupils read the outside work and then recite upon it. Furthermore, the chance for bluffing the teacher is done away with as there is no opportunity in this method.

By this system the surface of history is not merely skimmed over, as is too often the case in the recitation method. The pupil gets down deeper and understands better the causes and reasons for the various movements. He learns to see the whole of history divided into causes and effects, and to see the sequence of these. If the pupil is encouraged by the teacher to take notes and file them properly in his card catalog notebook, it will be found that he can write with more ease and rapidity and that his mind will begin to think logically and in an orderly fashion.

With this method it is not necessary to give an examination, as the finished product is what the pupil should be judged by. The whole is the examination

and no one should fail, for the teacher has been constantly supervising each pupil's work and making suggestions and criticisms where necessary, lending a helping and encouraging hand always. Thus the pupil is marked on what he has actually accomplished and not in what the teacher thinks he has accomplished and knows, as is frequently the case in many history recitation classes.

We see, then, that this is a type of seminar in which the pupils, instead of writing on scattered topics, work out a system of topics all connected and related by the outline. The element of supervised study thus enters into the method, for the pupils are always under the guidance and supervision of the instructor, who teaches them not only to write but to study history properly.

#### V. SOME POSSIBLE CRITICISMS OF THE SYSTEM

In formulating this system the high school has been in mind, but undoubtedly the plan would work as well, if not better, in normal schools and colleges, for there the student would have greater access to a wider range of materials and better advantages of study. Also the system could be installed more easily and perhaps with less expense in the latter places. If a separate laboratory could be given to each field of history, that is, one for English history, one for medieval and modern history, and one for ancient history, etc., then still more could be accomplished, and less confusion would result in the use of desks, books, charts, and pictures on the walls, blackboards, and bulletin boards. These, of course, would be ideal conditions, but where they are not to be found other arrangements can be made.

One criticism might be that it would be hard to get school officers and pupils to accept such a system. Anything new is generally looked at with mistrust. However, a good plan and persistence may overcome all objections.

It is true that many pupils do not like to write topics, etc. It is also true that they do not know and have never been shown how to write topics, and many times this is the reason why they show such antipathy to writing. Some of these pupils will not be interested in history, but may perhaps like to write. Through their interest in writing, then, they may acquire a liking for the subject. Others who do not care to write, and who perhaps do not care for history either, will be inclined to copy the work of classmates or take down what the book says word for word in order to get the task off their hands and out of the way as soon as possible. To this it may be said that pupils who are inclined to crib or be dishonest, will copy anyhow, generally in spite of all that the teacher may do, if they find it to their own advantage. This would occur in the recitation class just as surely as it does in the laboratory, although, perhaps, not to so great an extent, because there is less writing. However, as all the writing is done at the individual desks during the recitation period and under the supervision of the teacher, and the work is kept locked in drawers at other times, the chance of copying is greatly reduced. It is the teacher's place, however, to diagnose the



individual case and determine the medicine that will bring about a remedy. The pupils should be allowed to take down passages verbatim from sources, provided, of course, accurate reference is given, and provided also, it is not done too often. The teacher should see that the pupils give proper credit for all such passages, whether in actual quotation or in thought. This *must* be impressed upon their minds so that it will become habitual to give "credit where credit is due." Copying also must be reduced to a minimum.

The teacher should remember that the system must be thoroughly explained and interest created. This has to be done in any subject by the teacher, especially when certain pupils are disinterested. The teacher must create the interest, and it is the inventive and ingenious teacher that can best do that. This system should not be used by the slow, sluggish type of teacher who is more interested in pay days than school days, and outside activities rather than inside school activities. Generally speaking, the enthusiasm of the pupil for a subject is in direct proportion to that of the teacher. No system will work of itself. It has to be started and kept up. It is much like the automobile—it must be kept going with the gasoline of enthusiasm, to coin a metaphor.

Another possible criticism is that longer time will be consumed in covering the same amount of ground than in the recitation method. This has been partly answered by saying that the "history" is not to be written in too great detail. Give emphasis where emphasis is due, but skip over, just as would be done in the recitation, certain parts which the teacher can interpret and discuss briefly for the pupils. These parts then need only to be mentioned in the "history" the pupil writes. In the recitation, quite often, the time is taken up and wasted, no doubt, in the discussion of some unimportant phase. This can be eliminated in the writing. Here again it is "up to" the teacher to make the plan work.

Possibly another criticism is that some pupils will finish sooner than others by virtue of their being able to read and write faster and assimilate the materials more rapidly. This may easily be avoided by assigning and having posted the amount of ground to be covered in any given period; for example, each week or twice a month, or any other period of time that may be decided upon. The faster pupils should not be held back to their own detriment, but should be, perhaps, given extra work—although this cannot be done except under favorable circumstances—or rather encouraged to go over what they have already done and improve upon it by "filling in"—not padding—with more material. Also the pupil may always put in any extra time in the reading of references, etc. The slower pupils should not have these faster pupils held before them as ideals of speed to be attained, for speed is not the goal; neither should the slower pupils see that the faster ones are given harder or extra tasks, for they may conclude that the winner is either being punished for being so fast or else being rewarded for his speed. All should be kept busy, the first ones to finish included, for if the slower ones

look forward to a "life of ease" when they have finished their topic they will hurry to finish it and sacrifice accuracy for speed; while on the other hand, if they look forward to having more work to do when they have finished, they will retard their work and take their time.

In order to meet the situation in which some pupils get ahead of others, the class may be divided into groups with the pupils of about the same "speed" in their work in the several groups. This of course means extra work for the teacher, but it does not mean the forming of extra sections of the class. It is well to have a minimum amount of required work to complete the course. Perhaps the slower ones will only finish this. The teacher should help the others go further and get a deeper insight into the history field. It might be well to let the better pupils show to the rest of the class the results of this study, so that the rest will benefit by it also. This will doubtless work better in schools beyond the secondary as there the teachers will generally have mastery enough of the subject to help the pupils more in their advanced study.

A further criticism might be that there appears to be no outside work for the pupils in connection with this course. It is obvious that the pupils will not be able to read all the references necessary and write their "history" at the same time in the laboratory period. Therefore, in order for them to get the material to be used in the writing, they must do a great deal of their reading and note-taking outside of the laboratory period. Thus in the laboratory, the time is used mainly for the writing and not so much for the reading of references.

Still another possible criticism is that the class may not meet often enough to discuss their problems and work, and that as a result, the laboratory scheme is "overworked." Each teacher, as has been said above, should call the class together just as often as it is found necessary from the standpoint of the pupils and their work. It is also stated that for the average high school pupil a period each day for the whole term devoted to writing would become extremely monotonous. This is very true and consequently here again the teacher is the only one to vary and break the monotony. This can be done very profitably—and it is here suggested as an aid to the system—by introducing both oral and written quizzes at various intervals in which the pupils can show the degree to which they have become acquainted with their material. The time of giving these tests should not necessarily be known beforehand to the pupils, for then they will be more likely to keep up to the schedule and will not get "caught" unexpectedly or found unprepared. These tests need not be used as a means of grading a pupil but as a means of reviewing for the pupil's benefit. Thus the class meetings at times may be very profitably substituted for the laboratory period so that the pupils may get together and discuss informally and be examined upon what they have learned and the ground they have covered.

In connection with the notebook file the criticism

might possibly be made that the pupils do not know how to take notes. This is very true, but here again the teacher must be the chief factor in helping the pupils to learn, and to learn correctly. The notebook, which is the file, is the pupil's own. He is not marked on it by the teacher. It is therefore up to the pupils to use it to their greatest advantage after they have been shown how. Each pupil himself determines the value of his notebook file to himself.

We see then that upon the teacher rests the success or failure of the whole plan. As the foundation is to the building so is the teacher to this method. If the teacher is weak in historical knowledge and interest the structure will collapse. The teacher must know

how to create and maintain interest among the pupils. The teacher must be inventive and ingenious, not passive and inactive. The teacher must have a good command of the English language and must be able to help the pupils as an English teacher would in a composition class. All this is not too much to ask of a teacher, surely, in this day and age of progress when the teaching profession is undergoing and will continue to undergo, we hope, a revival. Trusting, then, that this plan is not too Utopian to be tried by open-minded school boards, we can do no more than recommend it as an attempt to improve the present system of teaching and studying history.

## Study Methods in History

BY ARVIL S. BARR, HEAD EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT, EVANSVILLE COLLEGE, EVANSVILLE, INDIANA

The movement for supervised study has placed a new emphasis upon effective study habits. In the main the discussions have dealt with the larger administrative features of the plan and have been only here and there concerned primarily with the problem of study-habits in the specific school subjects. While a body of general rules for effective study is entirely desirable and worth while, it is quite evident that such are applicable to the different subjects only in a broad general sense.

Effective instruction in how to study history must ultimately rest upon a careful *psychological analysis* of the learning process and a study of the *aims* of history instruction. It is the object of this paper, with this analysis in mind, to present a list of *specific teacher activities* desirable in a study-lesson in eighth grade history.

Whether or not supervised study is accepted as a possible and practical method from the standpoint of school administration, there must be from time to time a type of recitation which stresses study methods. It is hardly necessary to say, considering the small amount of historical information which the average pupil can acquire and retain permanently, that, if such a study should not lead to correct study-methods and habits for future use, the pupil's efforts would be largely in vain. In the survey of current materials and articles of study-methods in history one finds mainly such general suggestions as (1) read the lesson carefully; (2) consult the dictionary on difficult words; (3) use references; (4) outline the lesson and study from outline. Or again: (1) read the lesson through for the general plan; (2) make written outline of the topics and of the important sub-topics; (3) formulate three or four quiz questions; (4) search for parallels and contrasts; (5) give an oral summary of the lesson. While these suggestions are good and quite necessary, teachers of history should turn to more specific instruction. Following is a list of definite questions, general and specific, which will doubtless be of some aid to the teacher of history

who desires a more concrete procedure in the study recitation.

### I. GENERAL PROCEDURE

1. Did the teacher place a definite problem before the class?
2. Did the teacher direct the class to read the text for the general plan, idea, or story?
3. Did the teacher direct the class to write out and pronounce important proper names?
4. Did the teacher direct the pupils to locate important historical places?
5. Did the teacher direct the pupils to study the lesson on divisions or topics?
6. Did the teacher direct the pupils to outline or to pick out and jot down important topics?
7. Did the teacher direct the pupils to use the diagrams, pictures, and other materials provided by text and references?
8. Did the teacher direct the pupils to use reference materials other than the text?
9. Did the teacher direct the pupils to study collateral reading materials in such a manner as to make them a vital part of the organized plan of the lesson?
10. Did the teacher direct the class to formulate quiz questions on important topics?
11. Did the teacher direct the class to review the topical outline or temporary notes just previous to class?
12. Did the teacher direct the class to give an oral summary of the lesson?

### II. SPECIFIC HISTORICAL ABILITIES

1. Did the teacher discover the reading rates of individual pupils?
2. Did the teacher discover the pupil's ability to understand historic materials?
3. Did the teacher diagnose pupil difficulties in the comprehension of historical materials?
4. Did the teacher put *content* in difficult technical historical terms by adding greater detail?

5. Did the teacher discover the pupil's power of *immediate* memory for the different classes of historical material?
6. Did the teacher discover the pupil's power of oral reproduction of different classes of historical materials?
7. Did the teacher discover the pupil's permanent retentive power for the different classes of historical materials?
8. Did the teacher direct the pupil to discover whether or not the facts were true?
9. Did the teacher direct the pupil to discover whether the facts are important, and why?
10. Did the teacher direct the pupil to see the facts in their chronological order?
  - a. By giving the date.
  - b. By giving the chronological order in which events occurred.
  - c. By giving the length of time after or before other important events.
  - d. By grouping with other important events that occurred at the same time.
  - e. By placing events into the larger historical movements.
  - f. By contrasting the duration of the event with that of another important event.
  - g. By placing the events in decades, centuries, etc.
11. Did the teacher lead the pupil to see the causal relations of the events?
12. Did the teacher lead the pupil to make comparisons and contrasts?
13. Did the teacher lead the pupil to a sense of change, growth or development?
14. Was the teacher alert to discover individual differences and difficulties in the different historical processes?

## Book Review

*The Writing of History.* An Introduction to Historical Method. By Fred. Morrow Fling, Ph.D., Professor of European History in the University of Nebraska. Yale University Press. 195 pp.

Here is a little book on historical method of great value to at least four classes whose interests are not so divergent as they sometimes appear—secondary teachers, college undergraduates, graduate students in history and students in sociology.

Professor Fling emphasizes his well-known views that no one should undertake the teaching of history who has not had some practical experience in dealing at first hand with the sources. He insists that the chief value of history study, even for children, is not the acquisition of facts, but acquaintance with the mental processes by which facts are ascertained and the training of the judgment in dealing with these facts. In this work, so clear and simple an analysis is given of the various steps that must be taken before an independent judgment can be formed, that it will prove of great assistance even to the teacher who has as yet done no original work in history.

Both graduate and undergraduate students of history will find Professor Fling's treatise a presentation of historical method characterized by helpful illustration of actual problems in modern history, especially in connection with the study of the French Revolution, where the author's own investigations have made him peculiarly at home.

In the first and seventh chapters the relations of history and sociology are ably discussed. Both deal with the same social facts, and this should impose on the student of sociology the same rigorous method, the same critical training in the establishment of the facts, that is required of the historian—a view not always emphasized by teachers of sociology. It is only in the treatment of facts that the historian and the sociologist differ. The latter follows the method of natural science, and seeks to determine the laws of social conduct by discovering what the various facts have in common; while the historian denies the possibility of historical laws, and is only interested in the way one fact differs from another. He looks for the unique element in each event, while the sociologist looks for the common elements in events. The synthesis of the one results in the formulation of general laws similar to natural laws; that of the other results in the presentation of a complex in which change and development are emphasized. The historian considers "the unique evolution of man in his activities as a social being." He "is interested in quality, individuality, uniqueness; the sociologist, in quantity, in generalization, in repetition." The discussion of these views will be found stimulating to all who are interested in the social sciences.

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Another apparently authentic account of the death of the Tzar by an eye-witness" is that of Captain Francis McCulloch, entitled "Yurovsky and the Murder of the Tzar," published by *The Nineteenth Century* for September.

In his article on Mr. Wilson and the Campaign (*Yale Review* for October, 1920) Mr. William H. Taft says: "Wilson is a man of most exceptional ability and of more exceptional personality . . . . No man since the time of Joshua has made himself so completely the sole representative of the party as has Mr. Wilson."

Students of the history of the development of thought rather than students of history proper, will appreciate the article on "Bible and Magic" by C. C. Martindale, S.J., which appears in the *Dublin Review* for July-September, 1920.

"Parliamentary politics in Great Britain are in a transitional stage between the natural unity of war and the normal party divisions of a new era. Not for many a long day has the future been so uncertain, the study of political probabilities more baffling or more interesting," says A. F. Whyte in an article on "The Political Scene in Great Britain," published by *The North American Review* for October.

The Records of the *American Catholic Historical Society* for June, 1920, publishes an interesting article by John M. Lenhart, O. M. Cap., entitled "The Church of Canada after the British Conquest, 1760-1775."

"Italy's industrial future rests chiefly on the complete utilization of her wealth in water-power, together with the construction and distribution of electric power to such distances that installations of the Alps can act as reserves for those of the Apennines, or conversely," says Percy F. Martin in his discussion of Italy's Industrial Future, published in the *Anglo-Italian Review* for September, 1920.

William Whatley Pierson, in his article on "Alberdi's Views on the Monroe Doctrine" (*Hispanic American Review* for August) says, "Not only does the Monroe Doctrine act as a deterrent to a reform effected (by the prohibition of helpful political alliances) by excluding liberal European aids, but it is no real guarantee of independence, nor prevention of conquest. . . . There was proposed as early as 1844, the formation of a Hispanic-American league to insure continental equilibrium. This league was to be supported by an agreement with certain European powers without which Alberdi thought it would be sterile, involving no sacrifice of independence but a guarantee of it."

In *La Revue de Paris* for October 1st appears the first installment of Marcel Boulenger's "Gabriele d'Annunzio" which is an account of his work in Fiume. "At heart a son of Rome, and spiritual heir of the Tribunes and Consuls, he has pursued a great plan; he endeavors to abolish slavery, political and otherwise."

In a rather unusual article on "The Pilgrim Fathers," which appears in the October *Edinburgh Review*, Dr. R. H. Murray says:

"The Separatists were as anxious as the Calvinists to

ensure maintenance of their system of belief. They were a business company when they entered into negotiations with the Virginia Company. They were a political company when they signed their compact in the cabin of the Mayflower. But the business company and political company were pre-eminently a congregation whose primary purpose was the worship of God."

The November number of *The National Geographic Magazine* is a China number, containing as it does four interesting and excellently illustrated articles on that country. Not only those interested in the Orient, but all students of modern conditions will find much of interest in these: "Pekin the City of the Unexpected," by James Arthur Muller; "The Eden of the Flowery Republic," by Joseph Beech; "The World's Ancient Porcelain Centre," by Frank B. Lenz, and "The Man in the Street in China," by Guy Magee, Jr.

In *The Nineteenth Century* for October, Viscount Landon says of "The Problem of the British Empire:" "It will not be easy to effect a readjustment of the Empire, since the Dominions, despairing of any real recognition of the situation by the Home authorities, have now definitely formed themselves into two camps: (1) those that definitely head for a virtual independence, or for new privileges which inevitably lead to that end, and (2) those that praise the *status quo* as a fine monument of British wisdom in governance and recognize the liberty they enjoy as a 'partner in the alliance of friends.' This party is almost as serious a menace to the unity of the Empire as the former, since it is perpetually making insidious progress towards independence

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Volume XII.  
Number 2.

PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1921.

\$2.00 a year.  
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*Published monthly, except July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.*

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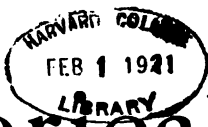
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## Thirty-Fifth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

The thirty-fifth annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at the New Willard Hotel, Washington, D. C., from December 27 to 30, 1920. Among the 360 and more in attendance there was noticeable a smaller representation than usual from the northwest and middle west, due no doubt to the increased cost of travel. Meetings during the same week were held in Washington by the American Political Science Association, the American Sociological Society, the American Catholic Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the Agricultural History Society and the National Association of State War History Organizations.

Joint sessions were held with the first named of these on Pan-American Political and Diplomatic Relations, and on Recent European History and Politics. The presidential addresses of these two Associations were also read at a joint meeting. President Channing's Historical Retrospect of the past century appears in the *American Historical Review* for January.

The Agricultural History Society met with the Association in a session devoted to Agricultural History. There were two sessions on American History, one of which was held with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. There were general sessions on Modern European History, Ancient and Medieval History, the History of Science, and one commemorating the Pilgrim Tercentenary by appropriate papers read by Prof. Clive Day on Economic Precept and Practice of the Puritans, by Lincoln Kinnicutt on the Settlement at Plymouth contemplated before 1620, and by Prof. David S. Muzzey on the Heritage of the Puritans.

At a joint meeting of the Conference of Historical Societies and the National Association of State War History Organizations the papers and discussion concerned the collection and publication of war history and records, and the co-ordination of historical societies within the states. At the business meeting of this latter society it was decided to continue the work of the organization along its present lines of activity.

The distinctive feature of the conference on the report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools was an address by Prof. Henry Johnson on the principles governing history teaching. The reports, outlines of courses, and discussions of this Conference will be published in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March and April, 1921.

Combining the social element with useful discussion were several breakfast, luncheon and dinner con-

ferences which this year were more popular than ever. In fact, at some of these accommodations could not be provided for all who wished to attend, and because of the confusion attending the efforts made to take care of so many the discussion in one or two instances was not as serious and helpful as it might otherwise have been. This was especially true of the luncheon conference at the Library of Congress, intended especially for graduate students and others interested in the opportunities for historical research in Washington. A tour of the Library followed the luncheon.

The subscription dinner of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association was more successful. The chief address at this meeting was made by Prof. Frederick J. Turner. There was also a breakfast conference on the proposed Manual of Historical Literature to replace the well-known work by Dr. Charles Kendall Adams. At this conference the committee appointed at the suggestion of the American Library Association presented a report of the progress made, and a discussion followed upon several questions of policy involved. The plan for the new manual provides for twenty-nine chapters which will present at least fifty per cent. more titles than appeared in the original work. It is expected that the new work will prove useful not only for public libraries and high schools, but also for college and university teachers and students. There were luncheon conferences also on Economic History, on the History of the Far East, on the History of Latin-America and on International Relations.

The most brilliant social event of the meeting was the subscription dinner held at the Willard Hotel on the evening of December 29. Dr. J. Franklin Jameson presided. The speaking was unusually good. Addresses were made by the French Ambassador, the Secretary of War, Miss Mabel Boardman (Commissioner of the District of Columbia), Hon. Paul S. Reinsch, Dr. James J. Walsh and Prof. Edward A. Ross.

The National Club House Committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae gave a reception to the members of the Association on the evening of December 28; a smoker was given by the Cosmos Club on the same evening, and through the courtesy of the French Ambassador and Madame Jusserand the members were entertained at the French Embassy on the afternoon of December 30.

At the business meeting of the Association the secretary reported a total membership of 2,524 as against 2,445 a year ago, it being the first net gain shown

since 1915. Two bequests received during the year were announced—the portrait of James Schouler, an ex-president of the Association, which the secretary was authorized to loan to the National Portrait Gallery; and the gift of \$5,000 by the will of George L. Beer, to be used in establishing a prize for the best work upon any phase of recent European international history. Resolutions in memory of these two deceased members were placed in the minutes of the Association. Reports of the treasurer and of the various committees were presented as acted upon by the Council. The Committee on the Justin Winsor Prize was unable to agree upon an award, and it was ordered that the three best essays considered be submitted to the committee for 1921 for early report. The Committee on the Military History Prize reported that the award had been made to Thomas Robson Hay for his essay on "Hood's Tennessee Campaign."

More than passing mention must be made of the excellent report presented by the Committee on Policy, appointed in 1917 for the purpose of preparing a comprehensive program of scientific activities which the Association might appropriately maintain or undertake. Among the twenty-two recommendations made by the committee was a proposal for a standing committee on program of the annual meetings, and a suggestion that scholarly summaries of all papers read at the meetings and not printed in the *Review* be presented in the *Annual Reports*. The committee believed that the Historical Manuscripts Commission should confine its attention to the location and calendaring of historical manuscripts and avoid the printing of materials in public depositories. The report further touched upon the work of the Public Archives Commission, the Committee on the National Archives recommended the appointment of a committee to aid the Manuscripts Division of the Library of Congress in the selection of material to be transcribed in foreign archives, and urged the reappointment of the Committee on the Documentary Historical Publications of the United States Government. Reference was made in the report to the work of the Committee on Bibliography, and to the means to be used in continuing and issuing more promptly the *Writings on American History*. It recommended that "the standing Committee on History in Schools should be reconstituted in order that the Association may have a body to which may be referred for report the various questions with respect to history teaching which come before it." Such a committee would also initiate appropriate investigations. The importance of maintaining cordial and effective relations with the various state and local historical societies and with the hereditary-patriotic societies was emphasized; and a standing Committee on Military History was proposed to advise and co-operate with the Historical Branch of the General Staff and with other governmental agencies engaged in preparing histories of the war. In considering the means of publishing historical studies unsuited to existing historical periodicals, the committee went on record for the establishment of a quarterly publication to be devoted to con-

tributions of the highest scholarship, more special or technical than those usually appearing in the *Review*, and less restricted as to length. The military history prize was given the title of the Robert M. Johnston Prize, and the George Louis Beer Prize was established. The Association was congratulated by the committee upon the part it was able to take in the organization of the American Council of Learned Societies; a much-needed Dictionary of American Biography was recommended as an undertaking to be referred to the Association's delegates to that body. The report also gave approval to the plan for establishing a University Center for Higher Studies in Washington. Two additional standing committees were recommended—a Committee on Agenda, to lay before the Council from time to time proposals of appropriate activities, and a Committee on Service, to establish relations with departments of the national government so as to make more available to the public the services of the Association and of historical scholarship. Finally, the report showed the necessity of increasing the finances of the Association, to which end a standing committee on endowment was proposed; and active measures were urged to increase the income from each member by raising the amount annually requested in addition to the dues or by advancing the dues to five dollars. In this connection it was pointed out that \$2.88 of each member's dues must now be applied to the actual printing expenses of the *American Historical Review*.

In accordance with the proposals of this last section of the report, a motion was made to amend the constitution so as to raise the annual dues from three to five dollars. Pending the consideration of this amendment at next year's meeting it was voted to ask members to make larger contributions in addition to the present dues.

In the report of the Nominating Committee the following nominations were presented, and those designated were unanimously elected:

*President:* Jules J. Jusserand.

*First Vice President:* Charles H. Haskins.

*Second Vice President:* Edward P. Cheyney.

*Secretary:* John S. Bassett.

*Treasurer:* Charles Moore.

*Members of the Council:* James T. Shotwell, Ruth Putnam, Carl R. Fish, St. George Sioussat, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Sidney B. Fay, Frederic L. Paxson, Arthur L. Cross.

*Nominating Committee:* Frank H. Hodder, Eloise Ellery, William E. Dodd, Henry E. Bourne, William E. Lingelbach.

St. Louis was selected as the place of meeting in 1921.

The Council announced the following committees:

*Committee on Program for the Thirty-Sixth Annual Meeting:* Evarts B. Greene (one year), chairman; Charles Seymour (two years), Walter L. Fleming (three years), Thomas M. Marshall, Norman M. Trenholme, Lyman Carrier, John C. Parish.

*Committee on Local Arrangements:* Robert S. Brookings, chairman; others to be added.

*Board of Editors of the American Historical Re-*

*view:* J. Franklin Jameson, managing editor; Wil-liston Walker, Carl Becker, Claude H. Van Tyne, Guy S. Ford, Archibald C. Coolidge.

*Historical Manuscripts Commission:* Justin H. Smith, chairman; Eugene C. Barker, Annie H. Abel, Logan Esarey, Gaillard Hunt, Robert P. Brooks.

*Committee on the Justin Winsor Prize:* Clive Day, chairman; Isaac J. Cox, Thomas F. Moran, Bernard C. Steiner, William W. Sweet.

*Committee on Publications:* H. Barrett Learned, chairman; Louise F. Brown, Eugene H. Byrne, August C. Krey, Frank E. Melvin, Richard A. Newhall, Charles W. Ramsdell, Arthur P. Scott, J. J. Van Nostrand, James E. Winston, George E. Zook.

*Conference of Historical Societies:* George S. Goddard, chairman; John C. Parish secretary.

*Committee on National Archives:* J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles Moore, Col. Oliver L. Spaulding, Jr.

*Committee on Bibliography:* George M. Dutcher, chairman; Sidney B. Fay, Augustus H. Shearer, Henry R. Shipman.

*Public Archives Commission:* Victor H. Paltsits, chairman; Waldo G. Leland, Arnold J. F. Van Laer, R. D. W. Connor, Solon J. Buck.

*Committee on Obtaining Transcripts from Foreign Archives:* J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles M. Andrews, Waldo G. Leland.

*Committee on Military History:* Brig.-Gen. Eben L. Swift, chairman; Maj. Eben Putnam, Col. Oliver L. Spaulding, Jr., Allen R. Boyd, R. B. House.

*Committee on Patriotic Societies:* To be announced.

*Committee on Service:* To be announced.

*Board of Editors of the Historical Outlook:* Albert E. McKinley, managing editor; Edgar Dawson, Laurence M. Larson, William L. Westermann, Sarah A. Dynes, Daniel C. Knowlton.

*Committee on Bibliography of Modern English History:* Edward P. Cheyney, chairman; A. L. Cross, Roger B. Merriman, Conyers Read, Wallace Notestein.

*Committee on the Historical Congress at Rio de Janeiro:* Bernard Moses, honorary chairman; Percy A. Martin, acting chairman; Julius Klein, secretary; Charles L. Chandler, Charles H. Cunningham, Manoel de Oliveira Lima, Ambassador Edward V. Morgan, Constantine McGuire.

*Committee on the Documentary Publications of the United States Government:* J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles Moore, Henry C. Lodge, others to be appointed.

*Committee to Formulate Rule for the George L. Beer Prize:* William A. Dunning, chairman, Marshall S. Brown, Edward S. Corwin.

*Committee on the Writing of History:* Jules J. Jusserand, Charles M. Colby, Wilbur C. Abbott.

*Committee to Co-operate with the Peoples of America Society in the Study of Race Elements in the United States:* To be announced.

A more detailed account of the meeting, embracing summaries of the papers read, will be given in the April number of the *American Historical Review*.

## A Letter from Europe

BY JUSTIN H. SMITH, LL. D.

MADRID, DECEMBER 1, 1920.

MY DEAR DR. MCKINLEY:

Since you feel that my observations in Europe would interest the readers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, I am happy to submit a report.

In England they were confined mostly to Devon and Cornwall. There the fields and lanes, familiar to many of your readers, are still trim and beautiful; and the landscape, as in all the old countries from England to Japan, has the special charm given it once for all when the labor of men was cheap, for walls, bridges and houses, being constructed of stone, blend with the ground and seem to humanize nature.

To my surprise, hardly any signs of the great war could be seen, except that one misses the former bountifulness of Merrie England. Very few cripples were in evidence. More men of the military age could be found than work for them to do. The children, frequently fine specimens of sturdy, blue-eyed, flax-haired little Britons, seemed to promise that England would continue to bear sway; and the young women, still comely, sensible, wholesome and strong, appeared quite ready to accept their full share of the toils and cares of life.

Apparently there was less feeling against Ameri-

cans than reports had led me to suppose. In my judgment it is largely a mistake to infer from the Englishman's reserve about his own achievements that he is peculiarly modest. Pride, not modesty, closes his lips. He values himself too highly and too justly to place himself in the class of braggarts, who so often have but little to their credit; and when our men, in the half-joking style so common at home, talked loudly about having to come over and end the war, many "Britishers" were angry to the core, and some of the boasters found themselves very severely handled, indeed.

But the psychology of the American has come to be understood somewhat. At one time, about a dozen years ago, the Mexicans began to be highly excited because some of our newspapers talked about annexing the northern part of their country, but *El Imparcial*, the government organ, said in effect: "Don't feel disturbed; the American business man requires his newspaper to furnish him a sensation for breakfast every morning along with his coffee, to whip his faculties into action for the day's work, and when the sensation and the coffee have done their part, both are forgotten." The Mexicans recognized that a good deal of truth lay in the remark, and cooled down. A

personal acquaintance with the late Senator Tillman satisfied me that his violent language was only half meant. As he said once, that was his vocabulary. And no doubt the English have realized that our bragging was taken far too seriously. In both England and France, indeed, so far as I could judge, people now understand that Americans are good, bad and indifferent, like themselves.

It surprised me also to find so little hatred of the Germans. One gentleman said to me that, after all, the war was merely the result of over-population beyond the Rhine. Another told me of attending a large meeting at which an ex-soldier had a great deal to say regarding the abuse he had suffered in a particular German prison. My friend had been in that prison, and saw that the speaker was a fraud. So he asked questions enough to trap him, and then denounced him as a cheat, upon which everybody laughed and applauded. Even in France, by the way, Wagner has returned to the stage.

A new idea about the rate of exchange was presented to me. Like others, I had supposed that the decline of sterling in the American market could only be considered a misfortune for Great Britain, as the decline of their own money is viewed in the other countries of Europe. But England occupies a unique position. She has free colonies that are great purchasing communities, and naturally they have been placing orders where they could purchase to the best advantage. But its present state of exchange is an inducement to buy in England; and I had it on excellent authority, that in order to promote this tendency, British manufacturers have arranged to carry large stocks of their wares at convenient points in, say, Canada. Channels of trade once opened are likely to persist—especially when carefully guarded, as these will be; and it remains, therefore, to be seen whether the chief loser is Great Britain.

It interested me deeply to observe how the prospect of a vast coal strike, with all the loss and suffering that it meant, was faced. There was a great deal of quiet sympathy, not merely with the bread-and-butter aspect, but with the sentimental aspect of the miners' case. Memories of the old days, when the owners and the government had paid no attention to the wretched state of the voiceless workers under the ground, played a large part in the agitation; and so did certain present conditions, regarding which little or nothing has been printed. For example, there are mines underlying the estates of noblemen, and the diggers have to make long walks to the mouth of the pit and then to the seat of operations, because the noblemen will not permit shafts to be sunk and used on their land. But, all the same, public opinion did not favor surrendering to the dictation of a small minority, and looked calmly even if sadly ahead, confident of getting through the affair somehow to better times.

What has aggravated the coal difficulties, as it has the Irish trouble, is a want of confidence in the prime minister. It is constantly asserted that in both fields he violated a pledge, and that, if he could not keep

his word, he should have resigned. Great numbers of Englishmen charge him, therefore, with personal dishonesty. As an opportunist, shifting his policy to meet circumstances and determined to retain his position—as he believes, it is said, that Heaven wishes him to do—he was almost sure, sooner or later, to find himself distrusted, and, though very likely he will hold his place for some time yet, the future does not look too promising for him. A man who sticks to principles may go down and rise again, for he commands respect and confidence; but a manipulator, who tries every device and then fails, is nowhere. A crisis calling for Lloyd George's undoubted talents might set him on his feet again, and, therefore, since it would be for his interest to bring on such a crisis, he may become a dangerous factor in British public life. So with home affairs unsettled and problems in all quarters of the globe, the British historical outlook will be of no little interest for some time to come.

In France I passed from north to south, visiting Cherbourg, Rennes, Nantes, Bordeaux, Lourdes, Bayonne and other towns of the southwest. In comparison with England the country seemed unkempt; but in the cities at least, though naturally the activity of war times has diminished, one could not fail to notice the animation and the signs of prosperity. Last summer the ultra-fashionable and expensive summer resort of Biarritz was so crowded that people had to sleep on the beach and on tables and floors in places miles away.

Here, too, very few cripples are visible, for great numbers of mutilated men have obtained artificial limbs, as no doubt they have done in England, and the most severely injured cannot appear in public. The chief reminders of the terrible war are the women in black, and many of these appear quite cheerful or willing to be made so. Whatever he thought of girls in short skirts, there can be only one opinion, perhaps, about a plump woman of thirty or thirty-five in a mourning gown that extends barely to her knees; and the same is true about courtships—of a certain kind—in railroad stations and on trains.

At first sight, indeed, it looked to me as if the French had returned to the business of enjoying themselves with an enthusiasm resulting naturally from the passion, violence and exaggerated physical development of the war zone. The bishop of Bayonne in particular, basing his denunciations primarily on lay testimony and the revelations of the confessional and referring principally to those who visit the springs and watering-places of his region, has spoken recently in vivid terms on this matter.

But one must be extremely careful in judging the French. They are pre-eminently social and family people, and these qualities, like all others, are liable to run into excesses. As the American wants to begin the day with a sensation, the Frenchman likes to finish it in that way, and enjoys a dash of spice at his theatre. The tendency may be wrong, but tendencies do not prove so very much. Alphonse Karr stole hyacinths when he was a boy and St. Augustine stole pears.

Life is no doubt essentially sound in France.



"Work and fidelity, work and fidelity—that is what wins in the end," testified a successful friend of mine at Bordeaux. Square dealing is a good test, and I found it. A medical man, who must have known from my accent that I was a foreigner, named a fee that by American standards would have been ridiculously small, even aside from the rate of exchange. A jeweler charged me less for some work than I had willingly agreed to pay. A woman keeping a fruit stand, when I offered something extra for her ripest, gave me what I wished, but refused to take more than her regular price. In England things are not done after exactly that fashion at present.

One day in the train I noticed a gentleman who seemed like an American college professor, and his grown-up daughter, dressed in long skirts, was reading attentively a religious—apparently a Protestant—magazine. Another day I observed a bride with a book on the subject of woman in the home. In the French character gayety and seriousness get on well together. One need not fear that seriousness has disappeared with the smoke of battle.

And there is occasion enough for it. England and the United States poured millions of money into the coffers of the French people, until, as a Bordeaux business man said to me, there is too much of it; and it seems a little strange sometimes that French journalists, in clamoring fiercely for the last penny that can be squeezed out of Germany as compensation for the losses of France, never, so far as I am aware, make the slightest acknowledgment of this fact. But the international situation of the country is far from enviable. The Germans are too numerous; and there they are, just beyond the Rhine. They cannot be rubbed out; and France naturally wishes to strengthen herself and keep them flat on the ground. She wishes also to surround them with enemies; but her protégé, Wrangel, has failed, Greece has reacted, Poland is insecure, and, in the strange turn of international affairs, the very fact that the Germans no longer seem very formidable may enable them to construct, or at least enter, a powerful combination.

To increase her anxiety, France perceives now that Great Britain's attitude has changed. This ought not to have surprised her, and probably has not surprised her real statesmen. Long ago Montesquien remarked that England would always make her political interests give way to her commerce; and still more ready is she, says *La France* bitterly, to sacrifice the interests of her allies to it. Now that she no longer fears Germany, she wishes that country to prosper sufficiently to become a profitable customer, and is disposed to be friendly enough to invite business relations. Probably, too, she is not at all unwilling to let the French realize how much they may need British support, and understand that the close alliance of 1914-18 is not necessarily to continue, as the French people have commonly assumed that it would.

It was therefore quite natural to inform Germany that the right, given by the treaty of Versailles, to seize private German funds lying in England, in case the German government should not fulfill all its international obligations under that treaty, would not be

exercised; but this action was a hard shock on the other side of the channel. The newspapers were full of it; and it was understood, though perhaps not said, that Italy could not fail to be influenced by the course of Great Britain.

Then it was reported that England had settled the great coal strike by raising wages at the expense of her foreign customers, among whom France is very prominent. According to Marcel Cachin, British coal delivered to English industries for eighty francs costs 350 to 400 on the other side of the channel, so that, as a French financier has remarked, the British government, mine owners and miners are going to live happily together at the expense of their neighbor and ally. Not only so, but England is said to be exerting herself to prevent German coal from competing with her own in the French market.

Signs have been observed, too, that England does not attach a purely sentimental or defensive value to her control of the oceans. What commercial monopoly signifies to her every one knows, who has observed the big dividends and wretched service provided by her shipping in far eastern seas, where German competition had not been felt. The French are therefore beginning, as the Americans may well do, to dread what may be in store for them on this account. Already Englishmen are saying that if Great Britain can adjust her domestic industrial disputes, the world is "at her feet"; and, if this adjustment can be effected at the expense of foreign nations, the problem would appear to be solved.

How strange it would seem if British commercialism, enthroned by the late war, should cause as much trouble as did German militarism, and lead to a conflict in which France and Germany should fight side by side as allies of the United States. But this might be quite logical, and would perhaps be no stranger than the recent friendship between two such traditional foes as England and France used to be. A prominent French journalist declared last month that war between Great Britain and the United States could not be postponed more than fifteen years. Such an event seems unthinkable, as well as unspeakable, but so did the recent war, and so did the present state of things in Russia. Impossibilities appear to have become easy. A league of nations could prevent small wars, but could it prevent great ones?

The internal condition of France is likewise disturbing. There are likely to be a serious business depression and a dangerous lack of work; the coal miners have recently shown a disposition like that of the British miners; and, while the great labor confederation refused to accept soviet principles, its chief leader has declared for inaugurating a revolution at the earliest favorable opportunity.

All along the line one observes in France departures from the old standards. Feminism is a movement that may signify a great deal, but I will not go into that subject. When I visited the country in 1878, a gendarme, standing solemnly by himself at the end of the railroad station, saluted each train as it rolled in, and one's every step seemed to be governed by sacred regulations; but now one can do as one does



in the United States, and I recently hunted half an hour for a policeman at the principal railroad station in Bordeaux without finding one.

In language the same tendency may be observed. English words began to come in a long time ago. The wholly unnecessary *stopper* appeared as early as 1890. But now they seem to arrive by every train. "Stand," "meeting," "girls," "dancings" (like *dancants* at New York), "skating palace and music hall circus" at Bordeaux, and "grand match de foot-ball rugby" down at Dax in the Basque region are specimens. Very different is the proud Spanish method. "Meeting" is turned into *mitin*, and "leader" into *líder*, though handy vernacular from South America is corrupting the pure Castilian. So much for France.

Spain is by no means moribund, as some Americans imagine. Getting rid of Cuba, that running sore of her finances, opened the way to a healthy development; and neutrality in the recent war both contributed to that development and saved her from the present burdens of her neighbors. To be sure, prices have gone up, but so they have done everywhere; and—principally in consequence of largely increased importations, a prospect that the railroads will have to buy heavily abroad, too much paper money, and speculations in foreign exchange—the peseta has gone down, but the tide seems to have turned. To be sure, again, though for its area Spain has a remarkable amount of surface, a great part of the surface is too nearly vertical to be good soil. But the mass of the people are as industrious and thrifty as a few of them are poor and proud; and, according to the testimony of business men, they are fairly prosperous and hopeful.

Out of the foreign debt of scarcely 900,000,000 pesetas, bearing interest at four per cent., hardly 250,000,000 (at present about \$34,000,000) are in the control of foreigners, said the Marqués de Cortina, delegate of Spain to the recent Brussels Conference; and most of these 250,000,000 are held in France, where there is an offset of 455,000,000.

For the first time in an epoch Spain has of late been feeling rich. In the shops, restaurants, cafés and theatres there is plenty of money, as well as plenty of people. The hotels, even in the smaller cities, have elevators, electric lights, steam heat and modern plumbing. At Madrid there are handsome new buildings, the streets are torn up in a way to satisfy, even New York, and a large district in the heart of the town is undergoing reconstruction from the ground up; while Valladolid has a store displaying for sign the words "XXI Century." In the country the black oxen draw the plow smartly—for oxen; both sheep and shepherd look well fed; women ride their donkeys along the dusty but solid roads as if going somewhere; and even the donkeys appear to be looking ahead.

But of course Spain would not be happy according to the notions of our day were there no problems, and she has enough. In the first place her Ireland may be cited. This is Catalonia, with its haughty capital, Barcelona.

Back in the twelfth century this region was as far

superior to the rest of Spain intellectually as it is now in a business way. In a sense it belonged to the "Province," and the Provençal poets often crossed the strip of coastland between the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees, where the fertile hillsides poured out the red wine of Roussillon; and, if I may trust my memory, one of these troubadours celebrated Catalonia in a widely known song, ascribing to her people culture, wit, courtesy, gallantry, and everything else worth while according to the standards of the day. So the Catalans have always held aloof from the rest of the Spaniards. Independence has long been their dream. They are always disposed to be turbulent, and they are said to be trying at this very time to launch a revolution.

In politics Spain is peculiarly at sea just now. Owing to the hostility of Señor La Cierva against the administration, the monarchical group has broken in two; and the socialists also have split asunder. There will probably be thirteen parties in the next Congress, and the six largest of these merely bear the names of their chiefs—Mauristas, for example, who follow Señor Maura. The religious element is active; but the attempt to create a distinctive "Catholic" or "Christian" party is not regarded with much favor. The republicans are politically insignificant, and appear to be losing ground; and the socialists also will probably have but few seats in Congress, because the extreme left wing—the Sindicalists of Catalonia, who worship toward Moscow—regard the government as merely something to be destroyed, and will probably take no part in the approaching elections. Whether the socialists of the other wing will be drawn away from their own leaders by these extremists is one of the most interesting problems.

On social questions the country is deeply disturbed. The Spanish are naturally inclined to be restless, and no doubt the people are quite generally permeated with radical ideas. Strike follows strike and follows promptly, except when they march abreast. Recently all industrial activities came to a stop at Salamanca, and the whole province of Zaragoza is now indulging in a pretty general strike. But all these difficulties are exaggerated a good deal by the newspapers, I am told. Some of the window-smashing is done for the satisfaction of personal grudges, which use a "labor riot" as a mask. Industry and commerce are more or less hindered, and the finances of the country suffer to some extent. But all nations are in the same class in this regard.

The burning issue now before the people is the question of letting the railroads have more income with a view to increasing their efficiency; and this is regarded to a large extent as a struggle between the wealthy who own the roads and the masses who use them. Another issue is that of giving the minor officials larger salaries. Their pay is certainly miserable now—at the present rate of exchange about forty dollars a month on the average; but, it is contended, so are the officials. There are too many of them. They give their best attention to outside work, which their short office hours enable them to do, and slight their prime duties so much the more. Naturally the oppo-

sition asserts that, unless the present administration is turned out, the country will go to the dogs; but there is nothing new to Americans in that.

To a citizen of the United States reading the daily press in Europe, and thinking more or less in European terms, the coming entanglement of our nation in the affairs of this continent is a painful subject. Our public men are not versed in the wily and cut-throat game of diplomacy that is traditional here, and our people—sentimental and in all international matters ignorant—will have some hard and expensive lessons to learn. We shall be a good deal like the smart westerner, who makes his pile and then takes the train for New York to show Wall Street a thing or two. Are we to find ourselves lying bound at the "feet" of England, for instance? And how are we to get on with France? That country will expect us

to support her fully in a policy based upon a passionate fear and hate that we have no excuse for entertaining. Unless the last mark demanded of Germany is paid, the French talk of seizing a part of her territory, holding it by military force, and piling up another crushing bill for the costs of occupation. Can we endorse all this? If not, France will not forgive us.

There is more of the "outlook" than of the "historical" in this letter, I am afraid; but, as it will go north by a Spanish train, it may all be historical enough by the time it reaches you; and so, with the best wishes of the season to yourself and your readers, it shall be sent along.

Sincerely yours,

JUSTIN H. SMITH.

## The Past and the Future of History

BY HARRY ELMER BARNES, PH. D.

Professor of History in Clark University

I. The Current Historiography: Its Nature, Contributions and Deficiencies.

1. *The Static, Unprogressive Nature of the Current and Conventional Historiography.*

It has been more than sixty years since Herbert Spencer in his memorable article in the *Westminster Review* on "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth," pointed out the narrowness and superficiality of the historiography of his day and pleaded for a new type of history which would reconstruct a complete and accurate picture of the past. More than forty years have passed since John Richard Green prefaced the most widely known product of English historiography with the remark that it was "a history, not of English Kings or English Conquests, but of the English People." Yet, only a few years ago Professor James Harvey Robinson could accurately characterize the current history writing and teaching as tending primarily to be concerned with the narration of meaningless names of potentates and battles, the recitation of political events, and the rehearsal of romantic or striking episodes which have had little or no significance in the historical development of humanity.

2. *The Conventional Conception of the Nature, Scope and Purpose of History.*

Before proceeding to an analysis of the pretensions and procedure of the conventional historiography of the present day, an inquiry must be made as to its nature, origins and real contributions.

The modern political history has been variously defined. Freeman described it as "past politics," but Seeley's characterization of it as the "biography of states" is more accurate and clarifying. It assumes that political events have been the "backbone" of historical development and constitute the only logical foundation for the organization and presentation of historical events. In its extreme form, it maintains

that political events have been the *causal influences* in determining the nature and course of history. While these are both entirely arbitrary assumptions, supported by nothing more than opinion, and give a very distorted notion of the historical process, there would be less cause for any quarrel with the political historian if he did not proceed to rule out as unworthy of consideration all the great events of history which are not directly and visibly connected with the life and growth of the state and the functioning of political organs.

The older view of the purpose of history was most tersely put by Bolingbroke when, following Polybius and Dionysius of Halicarnassus, he described it as "philosophy teaching by experience." History was conceived of more as a branch of ethics and homiletics than of social science. It was believed to be chiefly concerned with inculcating moral doctrine and with arousing bursts of patriotic enthusiasm through the glorification of the past of some particular nation.

While many of the better class of conventional political and episodic historians have escaped from this unfortunate misconception of the nature and purpose of history, most of the most important historians of the Nineteenth Century still conceived and executed their works according to the belief that the chief purpose of history was to glorify the national past rather than to recount in a faithful manner the real facts and forces connected with national development.

3. *The Political Fetish in Historical Writing.*

The cause for the present domination of historiography by the *political fetish* is obvious to anyone who has made a study of the development of historical writing in modern times. The source of the modern political history was the Germany which followed the defeat by Napoleon, at Jena, and which was reorganized by Stein, Hardenberg and Scharnhorst, and

inspired by Fichte, Arndt and Hegel. It was in the midst of this fervid patriotism that Niebuhr and Ranke began the work that transformed historical writing and research. The fact that many of the most influential followers of these men were Prussians, tended to sustain an unflagging interest in patriotic, political and nationalistic history throughout the nineteenth century—the period in which Prussia was securing a dominant position in the German Empire and longed for a European pre-eminence. National pride and competition stimulated a similar movement in France and England, and the American students brought back to this country the spirit and methods of the Continental historiography.<sup>1</sup>

#### 4. *The Episodical Element in Historical Writing.*

The episodical aspect of conventional historiography has a more ancient origin. It goes back to the gossip of Herodotus, the scandal-mongering of Suetonius, the melodramatic tendencies of Orosius, the proneness of the medieval annalists and chroniclers to record the novel and striking events and the rise of the modern historical narrative in the romance of Froissart's *Chronicles*. It also has a fundamental psychological basis in the notorious tendency of mankind to be attracted by the superficial, the sensational and the scandalous rather than the profound, dynamic and vital aspects of life. As Professor Robinson has well remarked, "Hundreds of thousands of readers can be found for Pastor Russell's exegesis of Ezekiel and the Apocalypse to hundreds who read Conklin's *Heredity and Environment* or Slosson's *Creative Chemistry*. No publisher would accept a historical textbook based on an explicit knowledge we now have of man's animal ancestry." The well-known fact that intellectual and educational habits and procedure are, with the exception of religious matters, the least subject and susceptible to rational analysis and progressive changes of any set of human interests has tended to perpetuate these exaggerated tendencies in the manner described in the opening paragraph.

#### 5. *The General Contributions and Defects of the Current Historiography.*

No informed person can well deny the immeasurable debt which history owes to this political and nationalistic school. It was under its inspiration and guidance that history writing was transformed from the interesting but unreliable gossiping memoirs of Saint-Simon and the polished rhetoric of Robertson and Hume into the highly accurate and organized historical works of Ranke and his pupils and associates; Freeman and the English school; and Mignet, Thiers, and the French political school. It was the same patriotic fervor which led to the compilation of the great collections of sources of national history—the *Monumenta Germaniae Historica*, of Pertz, Waitz and their successors; the *French Documents Inédits* of Guizot, Mignet, Thierry, and their associates and followers; the English *Rolls Series*; Carducci's revision of the great Italian collection of sources by

*Muratori*; and the American echo of this movement, to be discerned in Peter Force's *Archives*, Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History of America*, Bancroft's *History of the Pacific States*, and the more recent scholarly editions of the papers of statesmen and the proceedings of important public bodies and meetings. In short, it was *political history which gave modern historiography its accurate methods of research and provided it with its vast compilations of primary sources.*

But, as Professor Shotwell has very aptly said, the political historians were so intensely concerned with perfecting the methodology of research that *they lost the sense of proportion and relative values and failed to discriminate in the importance of the events which they narrated.* Instead of attempting to grasp and describe the whole current of human progress, they merely seized upon the most conspicuous chip on the surface of the waters and thus obscured and distorted the whole picture of human development. Dean Albion W. Small has admirably summarized the defects of current historiography along this line: "The quarrel of the sociologists with the historians is that the latter have learned so much about how to do it that they have forgotten what to do. They have become so skilled in finding facts that they have no use for the truths that would make the facts worth finding. They have exhausted their magnificent technique in discovering things that are not worth knowing when they get through with them. . . . The historians are locating cinders on the face of the glacier, but they overlook the mountain ranges that carry the glacier." As it was the task of the last century in historiography to bring about method and accuracy, so this century has before it the *problem of giving to history a comprehensive, well-balanced, natural and intelligent body of subject matter.*<sup>2</sup>

#### 6. *A Critical Examination of the Current Political Historiography.*

We may now turn to an examination of the pretensions of current political history and analyze the validity of its contention that political phenomena are of such primary importance as to warrant receiving the almost exclusive attention of the historian.

In the first place, *even the standards of accuracy of the political historian are open to serious criticism.* The intensely nationalistic spirit that pervades much political history has been one of the most potent influences in obscuring the truth in historical writing. As Professor Gooch says of three of the most eminent political historians, "if the purpose of history is to stir a nation to action, Droysen, Sybel and Treitschke were among the greatest of historians. If its supreme aim is to discover truth and to interpret the movement of humanity, they have no claim to a place in the first class." Thus the pretensions of political history in the matter of contributing accuracy of method are not entirely valid. All that can be said is that scientific history began in a political atmosphere. The fact that it dealt with political events did not give it accuracy; in fact, the more in-

<sup>1</sup> See H. B. Adams, *The Study of History in American Colleges and Universities*.

<sup>2</sup> See on this point J. H. Robinson, *The New History*, Chaps. I-V, viii.

tensely political it has been, the less accurate it has been.

The thesis of political history that political institutions and events are the causal influences in historic development is even less defensible. While no set of forces or type of institutions can be said to be entirely causal or resultant, there are few intelligent students of history and social science, today, who would maintain that political institutions are primarily causal in human development. The general results of modern research and analysis, which have been admirably summarized by Ratzenhofer, Small, Oppenheimer and Bentley, have tended unquestionably to demonstrate that, at the best, the state is but a focusing point for the interplay of a vast number of vital human interests which determine the nature and direction of political evolution. But even if it be granted that the state is the fundamental and directive force in human development, it would by no means follow that the current type of political history could secure any justification from this fact. There is astonishingly little in the current political type of history which throws any real light upon the origin, nature and development of the great political institutions of society. *There is little to be learned regarding political evolution from lists of dynasties, records of court scandals, diplomatic intrigues and military exploits.* The current type of history, instead of attempting to explain the origin, nature and development of the state, simply recites the most striking episodes connected with the history of some particular state or group of states. It would not be inaccurate to say that the average student would gain more enlightenment regarding the evolution of political institutions from Edward Jenks' little *Short History of Politics* or Franz Oppenheimer's *The State* than from the most pretentious historical work ever produced by the conventional type of political historiography. It is not unfair, then, to designate the current political historiography as an incomplete and melodramatic exposition of a superficial and distorted view of human society and social evolution.

This criticism of the unfortunate and mischievous tendency of the conventional historians to concentrate their attention almost exclusively upon political phenomena is not to be taken to indicate the existence of an ultra-individualistic or anarchistic trend in the newer history. The enlightened advocates of a broader basis for history fully agree with Lester F. Ward that the state is, in all probability, destined to play a far more constructive and more intelligent part in human society in the future than it has in the past. There is no opposition to the state as a social institution. The progressive student of history merely insists that in view of the fact that a very important department of academic investigation—political science—has now been provided solely to study political phenomena in all their phases and manifestations, history should recognize the value of a division of labor and cease to cling to political institutions as its center of orientation. History certainly has no closer relation to political science than it has to sociology, social psychology, economics or anthro-

pology. If an alleged historian fails to derive any satisfaction save from an investigation of political phenomena, he should either frankly recognize that he is dealing with only one small branch of history or seek solace in an avowed department of political science. The attempt to preserve the venerable practice of limiting history to a study of "past politics" is not only the most effective method of distorting history, but is also an unpardonable intrusion upon the domain of the science of government.

Again, the pretensions of the current political type of historians have received a new lease of life from the World War. The conflict, they tell us, was primarily caused by purely political influences, and, hence, only political history can furnish any adequate understanding of the origins, nature or probable effects of the war. The obvious answer to this contention is that the only concession to the political historian which can be made is that the war was declared through the agency and mechanism of the political organization. Its causes were but remotely political; they were primarily psychological and cultural, and this war was generated in the main by the elements of race, nationality, economic competition and a faulty educational and philosophical system. *There is, however, an undoubted connection between the political historians themselves and the war.* As Guillard, Scott, Altschul and others have so amply demonstrated, the excessively nationalistic historiography was one of the chief agencies in fanning the flame of exaggerated nationalism which lay at the bottom of the whole militaristic movement.

There remains the final redoubt in the defenses of the conventional political history—the claim that if political events are not the most important, at least they furnish the only possible basis for organizing historical events and are the best specific for the development of mental discipline in the whole range of historical facts.

The newer synthetic history answers the first of these points by maintaining that the *human mind is the only unifying thread in history* and that, as the types of influences which determine the "furnishings" of the human mind vary greatly from century to century, *no single valid set of events can be selected as a skeleton for historical organisation.* In the "ancient" Orient military, religious and commercial elements were dominant; in Greece art, literature and general intellectual interests were the dominating influences; the chief significance of Roman history is to be found in its contributions to legal development and imperial administration; in the Medieval period the influence of ecclesiastical institutions was dominant; the early Modern period was significant as witnessing the rise of nationality and capital, and the Commercial Revolution; the contributions of the Seventeenth Century were chiefly the spirit and movement of colonization and the origin of modern science and critical philosophy; the Eighteenth Century was one of general intellectual revolution and it witnessed the beginnings of the Industrial Revolution, the greatest of all the transformations in human history;

the Nineteenth Century was of pre-eminent importance on account of the marvellous development of natural science and mechanical industry, the perfection of the national state, and the rise of the newer or national imperialism; the Twentieth Century will undoubtedly find its task in solving the social, economic, political and diplomatic problems which have been bequeathed to it by the dominant creations and developments of the previous century.<sup>3</sup>

This scanty review of the chief tendencies and developments in the history of the past will suffice to convince any unprejudiced reader that *no single set of factors can be assumed to be adequate as a basis for historical organisation*, least of all the purely political factors, which at best could only serve as a basis for organizing certain phases of Assyrian, Persian, Roman and Prussian history. Certainly since 1500 the economic and scientific factors and influences have quite overshadowed all others. The search for a single principle for historical organization is psychologically akin to the search of the ancient Ionic philosophers for a single principle, such as water, fire, earth, air or flux, wherewith to interpret the universe.

The claim of the political historian for the supreme disciplinary value of political events is even more puerile. *This argument is the final refuge of all educational anachronisms* and has as ancient an origin as the Pythagorean belief in the magic qualities of numbers. It also is related to and supported by the basic notion of a certain prevalent type of educational tradition which holds that anything dynamic, vital or interesting to the student must be dangerous to mental growth and conducive to a speedy decline in psychic vigor. It is poor taste and worse logic for the political historian to sneer at the cognate claim of the classicist for the supreme educational value of classical syntax, and then resort to an equally indefensible contention in regard to his own subject.

II. The New Synthetic History; Its Nature, Aims, Contributions and Prospects.

1. *The Decline of Political and Episodical Historiography.*

There are ominous signs that the current political and episodical type of history is very gravely threatened. Indeed, it is inevitable that a rather grotesque tendency which has no justification save in tradition, convention and sentiment must sooner or later be wrecked by the modern critical and synthetic spirit which demands that every practice or institution shall show convincing cause for its existence. Books on the "New History" are appearing in constantly increasing numbers. No important textbook on history now appears in which the author does not at least profess in the preface to have given a due consideration to the non-military and non-political aspects of history. Even the "dyed-in-the-wool" political historians do not hesitate to discourse on the "New History" in quarters where the more recent conceptions of the province of history have become popular.

<sup>3</sup> See on these changes in historical interests and influences Mr. Marvin's two books, *The Living Past* and *The Century of Hope*.

The very fact that the adherents of the older conventional history feel compelled to cease scoffing at the contributions of the more advanced and modernized historians and to make concessions in form, if not in substance, to their contentions is most significant. It establishes beyond the possibility of successful contradiction the fact that the newer history can no longer be ignored and must seriously be reckoned with even by its enemies. It unmistakably indicates that the older school of historians feel that their cause is waning and that they must begin to prepare to submit to, and follow, the inevitable tendency towards a newer, sounder and more rational type of history.

But the most important of all the evidences of the approaching downfall of the episodical history and the political narrative is the fact that the number of serious historical works which breathe the spirit of Droysen, Treitschke, Seeley and Freeman, in regard to the province of history, is decreasing at a truly portentous rate. The older history is not only losing because of the increased power of the offensive of the "New History," but also because its own defenses are crumbling for want of reinforcements.

2. *The Fundamental Explanation of the Changes in the Conception of History.*

If one has made any serious attempt to acquaint himself with the development of historical writing since the unknown author of the Jahvist sources of the Old Testament and the Greek "logographoi," it is not difficult to comprehend the causes for the recent changes in the conception of the scope and content of history. The historical writing of every age, as Professor Shotwell has so clearly explained, reflects the dominant interests of that period. The gossipy narrative of Herodotus, the rhetoric of Isocrates, the national epic of Livy, and the polemic of Tacitus all mirrored contemporary interests. Historiography from Augustine and Orosius to Baronius, Bolland and Bossuet was chiefly concerned with the religious and ecclesiastical interests which were uppermost in the minds of the educated classes in Europe for a thousand years. The rise of the national state, with the accompanying stirrings of patriotism, produced the political history which dominated the nineteenth century. But the Industrial Revolution and the unprecedented discoveries in natural science have revolutionized the whole basis of our civilization and have furnished the human mind with an entirely new set of ideas and interests.<sup>4</sup>

In the earlier régime when human thought was believed to be the result of a mysterious spiritual essence, when economic and social relations and positions were fixed by custom and confirmed by an inscrutable Providence, and when prowess in the natural sciences was thought to be allied to sorcery or savored of impiety, none of the most characteristic lines of modern thought could well exist. The political, economic, scientific and theological revolutions which humanity has passed through since 1750 have

<sup>4</sup> I have attempted to trace this more in detail in my article on "History: Its Rise and Development," in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Americana*.

transformed the whole basis of our civilization and have also been reflected in the development of a series of new sciences which were virtually impossible in any earlier era. These new sciences are the science of man or *anthropology*, the science of the mind or *psychology*, the science of life or *biology*, the science of industrial relations or *economics*, the science of the relation of man to his environment or *anthropogeography* and the science of social relations or *sociology*. Each of these sciences represents a new set of interests and there has grown up as the result a vital need for its type of information and analysis. Their spirit and tendencies have reacted upon history to give it a broader, sounder and more human content. Beyond this they have forever silenced such non-scientific doctrines as the biological superiority of the classical Greek, the racial interpretation of history introduced by Gobineau and others, and the myth of an Aryan race.<sup>5</sup>

### 3. The Nature of the New Synthetic History.

The contributions of this newer history can best be illustrated by examining how it answers the great problems of history, namely, what is the nature and purpose of history, what is the correct scope of history, and what is the soundest method of historical interpretation.

#### a. The Purpose of History.

The newer type of historian holds that the purpose of history is to give the present generation such a complete and reliable picture of the past that it will be able to arrive at an intelligent comprehension of how and why the present state of civilization came about. Only in this way can one reach a correct notion of what is really essential and progressive in our civilization and of what is but an encumbering survival from primitive times.

The newer history contends that no further motive is necessary than the desire to know with as great accuracy as possible the whole story of the past. The question of satisfaction or enthusiasm over the past achievements of any particular nation is held to be quite subordinate to the more vital necessity of knowing what actually has happened and, if possible, why it happened. The truth must in all cases be preferred to gratification and self-complacency.

While the newer history freely admits the value of historical knowledge as an aid in improving the present and in planning for the future, it sounds a note of caution with respect to the view of Thucydides, Polybius, Dionysius and Bolingbroke lest one attempt to draw analogies and formulate laws of historical causation which rest upon very frail assumptions, if not upon totally false premises. It holds that few sit-

uations in a very remote past will allow of being used for data to test the validity or desirability of measures proposed for present or future application. It regards civilization as a great organic complex and contends that, as the general cultural setting of events in the past was so vastly different from the present situation, past events can furnish only a very doubtful and unreliable criterion for judging of the wisdom of present policies.

The chief way in which history can be an aid to the future is by revealing those elements in our civilization which are unquestionably primitive, anachronistic and obstructive and by making clear those forces and factors in our culture which have been most potent in performing this necessary function of removing these primitive barriers to unimpeded progress.<sup>6</sup>

#### b. The Scope of History.

The newer history would solve the problem of the scope of history by maintaining that *history must take into account the sum total of human achievement*. The historian of the new type does not try to substitute any magic basis of unity, organization or exclusion for the older political fetish, but confines his efforts to constructing as intelligible and complete a picture of the entire past as his sources of information will allow and to emphasizing the dominant features of every epoch.

It is not contended that a mediocre representative of the new school of history can duplicate Macaulay's famous description of England in the Seventeenth Century; but it is maintained that any careful and conscientious writer who brings together all that is known of the manners, customs, institutions and ideals of any age will give the reader a more accurate, comprehensive and intelligible picture of the past than is furnished by the works of the most consummate genius of political and episodic historiography. Owing to the broader scope proposed it may be expected that the synthetic history of the future will be of the co-operative type.

The newer synthetic history has enlarged the scope of historical narrative in *three distinct ways*. It has expanded it with respect to the *variety of human interests and activities which are recounted*. It has *pushed back the period in which our knowledge of the career of man begins*, and it has *expanded the scope of history in space by showing that more and more modern history is becoming world history*.

In regard to the extension of the range of interests which are deemed worthy of narrating, the newer history refuses to look upon any phase of human conduct as unworthy of consideration, but it seeks to put due emphasis upon those classes of activities and interests which the slightest reflection upon human life must demonstrate always to have been the most vital and influential in human existence and de-

<sup>5</sup> A discussion of the relation of these new social sciences to history may be found in J. H. Robinson, *The New History*, Chap. III; F. J. Teggart, *The Processes of History*; and, by the same, *Prolegomena to History*; F. S. Marvin, *The Century of Hope*; A. J. Todd, *Theories of Social Progress*, Part III; the article on "Psychology and History" in the *American Journal of Psychology*, October, 1919; F. H. Giddings, *A Theory of Social Causation*; and L. J. Bristol, *Social Adaptation*; W. H. R. Rivers, "History and Ethnology" in *History*, July, 1920; A. B. Hulbert, *The Increasing Debt of History to Science*.

<sup>6</sup> Probably the most signally successful attempt at this type of historical writing is to be found in James Harvey Robinson's recent articles on "Mind in the Making" in *Harper's Magazine*, 1920; and F. S. Marvin's books, *The Living Past* and *The Century of Hope*. See also Professor Robinson's *Syllabus of the History of the Western European Mind*.



velopment, namely, economic activities, social relations, technology and natural science, and political, legal and religious institutions.

The chief novel element in this phase of the newer historiography is the greater emphasis which is put upon economic, social and scientific factors in human development. Without for a moment committing itself to the Feurbach-Marxian determinism, the newer synthetic history recognizes that civilization has a fundamental economic basis, that the state of scientific knowledge at any period determines the manner in which the economic struggle will be carried on, and that the nature of the economic process will to a very large extent decide the nature of the prevailing social relations and institutions.

The newer history desires to emphasize and clarify those forces which have made us great as a nation and to decry the previous tendency of history to be exclusively concerned with those military and political episodes in our history which give rise to a narrow chauvinism or a complete ignorance of the vital phases of our national development. It attempts to make it plain that a people can be loyal and patriotic without being more warlike and bigoted than the dangers and necessities of the times compel them to be. It seeks to make clear the fact that in our national development the great scientists and inventors, such as Franklin, Whitney, Fulton, McCormick, Morse, Field, Edison and Gibbs have been more important than our leading generals and politicians. It insists that it is nobler to have developed a great industrial democracy than to have perfected a despotic military machine, even though democracy may be compelled temporarily to take on a militaristic tone to make its future more sure against the onslaughts of despotism.

Of course, this tendency to emphasize non-political factors in the treatment of history is not new. It is as old as Herodotus, and, in its modern phase, it dates from Vico, Voltaire and Heeren. It already has been represented by some of the most eminent of historians from all nations. England can boast of the names of Hallam, Flint, Symonds, Lecky, Green, Maitland, Slater, Pollard, Dill, Morley, and Ashley, Cunningham, Rogers and the less-noted economic historians; France has been represented by DeTocqueville, Guizot, Fustel de Coulanges, Luchaire, Rambaud, Tannery, Faguet, Reinach, Jaurès, Levasseur and the other economic historians; in Germany the most conspicuous names are those of Heeren, Riehl, Freytag, Burckhardt, Erman, Harnack, Breysig, Lamprecht, and Schmoller, Bücher and the lesser economic historians; Russia has contributed two noted members in Vinogradoff and Kovalevsky; finally, one finds in the United States such writers as Lea, Tyler, McMaster, Turner, Sumner, Jastrow, Breasted, Cheyney, Shepherd, Abbott, Burr, Bacher, Taylor, Robinson, Shotwell, Beard, and the economic historians, such as Tetlen, Coman, Bogart, Bolles, Gay, Commons, Wright, Day, Callender, Clark and Meyer.

Its attainment to an organized movement of such proportions that it seems destined to dominate historical writing and teaching in the not very distant future is what distinguishes the recent phase from the

earlier sporadic and isolated examples of this tendency.

The newer history and its allies, archeology and anthropology, have greatly extended the range of our knowledge with respect to the period of man's existence and the stages of advance through which he has reached his present development.

The ancient history textbooks which were common a decade ago, and which are still in use, were invariably prefaced with the legend of the dispersal of the sons of Noah from the plateau of Iran something less than 4000 B. C. Today, Eduard Meyer introduces the greatest of all histories of antiquity by a whole volume on anthropology. The word "prehistoric" has been abandoned in accurate historical terminology for the phrase "pre-literary history." We have the most indisputable evidence that man, in all anatomical respects entirely modern, lived in Europe at least 50,000 years ago. We are equally certain that definitely human precursors of this type of man lived there not less than 250,000 years ago.<sup>1</sup>

Owing to the partially fortunate fact that primitive man left no decipherable writings, the students of this period of human development have been compelled to concentrate upon examining the actual conditions of primitive life as revealed by archeological remains and not upon domestic scandals, romantic episodes, or military and political affairs. As a consequence, any intelligent student who has taken a course in prehistoric archeology in our larger universities knows more about the life of the inhabitants of Europe in the period between 50,000 and 5,000 years ago than he could discover regarding the life of the European peoples since 3000 B. C. from all the standard courses in European history in the average university or from the standard classroom manuals on European history. To make a convenient example, Boyd Dawkins, in his *Early Man in Britain*, tells his readers more about the life of prehistoric man in England than one could glean from the standard manual on English history by Gardiner regarding the life of the inhabitants of England during the historic period. A student of European history in our universities might be excused for believing that Charlemagne used a "Pierce Arrow" touring car in his travels over his empire and that he supplied his *Missi* with "Fords," but no intelligent student of prehistoric archeology would err to such an extent regarding the life of prehistoric man.

These newer ideas must of necessity bring with them a revolution in our historical chronology and our periodizing of history. Oriental history can no longer be regarded as "ancient." Ancient history really begins with the lower Paleolithic age, around two hundred thousand years ago, and ends with the beginning of the Neolithic, about fifteen thousand years ago. Modern history might be said to extend from the Neolithic to the dawn of written history. The period from 3500 B. C. might well be regarded as contemporary history. The major part of the so-called "historic period" from 3500 B. C. to 1750

<sup>1</sup> See H. F. Osborn, *Men of the Old Stone Age*; H. F. Elliott, *Prehistoric Man and His Story*.

A. D. has in reality been the least important era in the development of mankind. The really significant achievements in advance were made before 8500 B. C. or after 1750 A. D.<sup>8</sup>

It is highly obvious that this conception of the nature and course of human development over a period of time which is almost incomprehensible from our conventional chronological concepts and our modern standards of measurement, and from a condition not vitally different from that of the higher animals gives an *entirely new interpretation to the probable future development and the real goal of the human race*. Man is no longer to be thought of as striving "his lost estate to gain." Indeed, his "lost estate" is the one thing which the informed historical student of the present would least desire to recover, as the difference between that and our present condition is what really constitutes progress and civilization. The old retrospective theological interpretation of human development, or, better, of human retrogression, has thus been entirely relegated to the sphere of the worn-out mythologies and superstitions which have all too long prevented an intelligent grasp of the nature and significance of human progress. According to the generally accepted position of the most enlightened modern students, man must be regarded as having attained at the present moment the supreme height of civilization which has as yet been reached, and as having before him a future of progress and improvement such as we of the present can have but the slightest comprehension.

Such a grasp of the true nature of social evolution gives a dynamic and optimistic attitude towards reality that is as far removed from the old theological conceptions as the real buoyancy and optimism of youth is from the vain attempt of the man of three-score and ten to renew the sensations and ambitions of his boyhood. When one is able to grasp this dynamic forward-looking tendency produced by the modern view of human development and progress, the retrospective and obstructive cosmology and psychology which have prevailed since the time of Hesiod and earlier can no longer have any basis for existence.<sup>9</sup>

In addition to the pushing back of the supposed period of human origins, lost civilizations have been recovered which existed within what is conventionally known as historic times.

We may pass over, as already too well known to require special emphasis, the constant extension of our knowledge regarding the great civilizations of Oriental antiquity, and the rediscovery of the pre-classical civilization of the Aegean and the eastern littoral of the Mediterranean through the labors of such men as Schliemann, Evans and Dörpfeld.

Another early civilization, the existence of which

<sup>8</sup> A brilliant reconstruction of the origins of Oriental society, as well as one of the most perfect examples of the synthetic history of the future, is to be found in Professor Breasted's articles on "The Origins of Civilization" in the *Scientific Monthly*, 1919-20.

<sup>9</sup> See J. B. Bury, *History of the Freedom of Thought*; and *The Idea of Progress*.

was never quite lost sight of, but the historical significance of which has only recently been discovered and emphasized, is the Celtic civilization of Gaul. The researches of Joseph Déchelette, Fustel de Coulanges, Camille Jullian and T. Rice Holmes have revealed a Celtic North European civilization, coeval with the classical period, which was almost as highly developed in many ways as the classical civilization and nearly as important in the later development of European institutions.

In spite of the corrective influence of historians like Jean Dubos, as early as the first half of the Eighteenth Century, the preoccupation of classical historians with Greece and Rome, and of the English, American and German historians with the Germanic peoples, obscured the knowledge of the existence and importance of this North European civilization until it was largely rediscovered in an institutional sense by Fustel de Coulanges and Camille Jullian and archeologically by Mortillet and Déchelette, who demonstrated the surprisingly small importance of Germanic racial traits and institutions in the historical development of Western Europe, thus destroying the myth which had extended from the days of Tacitus to the time of Droysen, Sybel and Treitschke in Germany and Freeman, Kemble and Green in England to the effect that all the important political, social and cultural institutions of medieval and modern Europe were of Germanic derivation. In spite of the fact that European history can no more be understood without a study of this Celtic civilization than calculus can be comprehended without a knowledge of algebra, the current manuals of European history begin the survey with the so-called "barbarian invasions of the Germanic people."<sup>10</sup>

Space forbids more than a casual reference to the surveys of comparative legal, political, social and religious institutions which have been carried on by such writers as Lippert, Ihering, Tylor, Frazer, Morgan, Westermarck, Hobhouse, Durkheim, Sumner, Lowie, Wissler, Rivers and others, and which have recovered for us a knowledge of both primitive and historic civilizations. Nothing could be more destructive of chauvinism or more important for acquiring a proper perspective for the interpretation of historical development, but there seem few historians who are even aware of the existence of these works.

No phase of progress in historical writing or interpretation has been more significant than the advances which have been made in the demonstration of the importance of extra-European influences on the history of western civilization. Particularly significant has been the investigation of these factors in their relation to the origins of modern times. It was long the fashion to trace modern times to the Turkish occupation of the trade routes and the capture of Constantinople, to the Italian revival of letters and development of art, or to the Lutheran revolt against the Medieval Church. Professor Lybyer has proved beyond possibility of contradiction that the Turkish

<sup>10</sup> The most convenient source for this neglected subject is the introductory chapter and the supplementary notes in T. Rice Holmes' *Cesar's Conquest of Gaul*.



occupation of the trade routes had no influence on the development of overseas explorations and the development of modern colonial enterprise in America and the Far East, and, along with Professors Shepherd and Abbott, has demonstrated that the great cause for overseas expansion around 1500 was the scientific curiosity of the West and the jealousy of the western states concerning the Italian monopoly of the eastern trade with the Levant districts. Further, these writers have shown that the characteristic events and developments of early modern times, colonization, the downfall of feudalism and the rise of the national state, the beginnings of representative government through the rise of the middle class, the awakening of modern science, and the development of modern commercial and economic life, are primarily the product of the reaction upon Europe of the expansion of European civilization overseas. Even the Protestant Reformation would not have succeeded but for the rise of the middle class and the awakening of those nationalistic aspirations which the expansion did so much to produce. Compared with the overseas expansion and the Commercial Revolution, the Renaissance and Reformation appear backward-looking movements.

Again, though the Industrial Revolution must be looked upon as the most appalling transformation in the history of humanity, it could scarcely have appeared without the preceding Commercial Revolution which prepared the way for its development directly or indirectly in the realms of navigation, capital, commercial practices and institutions, raw materials, markets, legal development and even the mobility of labor.

Finally, the Industrial Revolution and its direct resultant, modern national imperialism, have promoted the final stage of expansion overseas since 1870. This has led to the exploration and commercial exploitation of all remaining habitable portions of the earth's surface and has bound the whole world together as organic economic and cultural unit, however powerful the centrifugal forces may at times become. As Viscount Bryce has well insisted in his judicious Raleigh Lecture on *World History*, we can now for the first time witness a real concrete unity of history rather than postulating a metaphysical or potential unity as was the case from the Greek Stoics and Augustine down to our day. Despite anything that Senators Borah or Johnson may do or say we have now become inextricable units in a world organism, and any attempt to study, write or teach national history without considering external influences must be regarded as a hopeless anachronism.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>11</sup> For a further discussion of this point of view in the rewriting and reinterpretation of history, see W. R. Shepherd, "The Expansion of Europe" in *The Political Science Quarterly*, 1919; W. C. Abbott, *The Expansion of Europe*; W. Cunningham, *Western Civilization in Its Economic Aspects*, Vol. II; Book V; articles "Nationalism," "Democracy" and "World Politics" in the new edition of the *Encyclopedia Americana*, and Viscount Bryce's lecture referred to above. The best guide is P. T. Moon's *Syllabus of World Politics*. Practical results of an acceptance of this viewpoint are evident in the Clark University Conferences on International Relations organized by Professor George H. Blakeslee.

### c. The Interpretation of History.

From this scanty survey of the contribution of the newer trends in historical study to the answer of the question as to what man has done, we may turn to an equally hasty review of their contribution to answering the question of why the historical development of mankind has taken the particular course that records demonstrate that it has followed, in other words, the contribution to the field of the interpretation of history.

In a notable article on that subject in the *American Historical Review* of July, 1913, Prof. J. T. Shotwell, of Columbia University, has demonstrated that the views regarding the interpretation of history have changed in a manner strikingly similar to the variations in opinion during the centuries in regard to the proper scope of history.<sup>12</sup>

He traces the different stages in the development of historical interpretation showing how, following the divine epics of Oriental antiquity, the mythological and philosophical interpretation of classical times was transformed into the eschatology which dominated historical interpretation from Augustine to Bossuet; pointing out how this was succeeded by the revival of critical philosophy with Voltaire, Hume and Kant and shifted into an idealistic interpretation of history in the romanticism of Fichte, Burke, Bonald, De Maistre and Hegel; making clear the relation between this phase and the political interpretation of most of the Nineteenth Century historians; and concluding by explaining how historical interpretation, like historical narrative and description, was placed on a sounder and broader foundation through the materialistic doctrines of Feurbach, Marx and their disciples, the interpretation of history in terms of the advances in natural science by Condorcet, Comte and Buckle, and the logical culmination of the broadening process in the synthetic movement represented by the leaders of the newer historiography.

There are at present some seven definite schools of historical interpretation among the representatives of the modernized students of historical phenomena, each of which has made an important contribution to our knowledge of historical development. They may be designated as the personal or "great man" theory, the economic or materialistic, the allied geographical or environmental, the spiritual or idealistic, the scientific and the sociological. It might be pointed out in passing that the conventional type of historians either cling to the outworn theory of political causation, or, like Professor Emerton, hold that historical development is entirely arbitrary, obeys no ascertainable laws and exhibits no definite tendencies.

The best known of these schools of historical interpretation, and the only one that the current political historians accord any consideration, is that which found its most noted representative in Carlyle, who claimed that the great personalities of history were the main causative factors in history.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12</sup> See also his article on "History" in the eleventh edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

<sup>13</sup> See Carlyle, *Heroes and Hero-Worship*; W. R. Thayer, *The Art of Biography*.

The contributions of the *economic* school of historical interpretation which was founded by Feurbach and Marx and has been carried on by a host of later and less dogmatic writers, the most notable of whom are W. Lombart and Thorstein Veblen, are too familiar to call for any additional emphasis. In spite of obvious exaggerations, no phase of historical interpretation has been more fruitful or epoch-making.<sup>14</sup>

The *geographical* interpretation of history, which begun with Hippocrates and continued through Vegetius, Bodin, Montesquieu and Buckle, has been revived and given a more scientific interpretation in the hands of writers like Karl Ritter, Ratzel, Reclus, Semple, Metchnikoff, Demolins and Huntington. Since the days of Ritter no respectable historian has dared to chronicle the history of a nation without first having acquired a knowledge of its geography. The historical work of Curtius, Riehl, Freeman, Bryce, Myres, Shaler, Semple and Payne are a few conspicuous illustrations of the influence which geography has had upon historiography. But even more important has been the work of those students of geography, such as Ratzel, Demolins, Metchnikoff and Huntington, who have shown in great detail the importance of the natural features of the earth's surface and climatic conditions in determining the regions in which the historical civilizations originated, developed and expanded. Especially noteworthy has been the suggestive, if not entirely convincing, work of Prof. Ellsworth Huntington, of Yale, whose researches in Asia Minor enabled him to ascertain the existence of important climatic changes in the past which throw a new light upon the hitherto unexplained problems of the shifting of the center of civilization from Egypt to Northwestern Europe and the invasions of Europe by Asiatic peoples.<sup>15</sup>

A somewhat belated offshoot of the Hegelian idealism is to be found in the so-called *spiritual* interpretation of history which finds its most ardent advocates in Professor Eucken of Germany, Professor E. D. Adams of Leland Stanford and Professor Shailer Matthews of Chicago.<sup>16</sup>

The attempt to view human progress as directly correlated with the advances in *natural science* received its first great exposition in the writings of Condorcet, and was revived by Comte and Buckle. This phase of historical interpretation has been sadly neglected by recent historians. It has been emphasized incidentally by Professors Breasted, Marvin, Shepherd, Shotwell and Robinson in their synthetic interpretation of history, but it remains the least exploited, and yet the most promising of all the special phases of historical interpretation.<sup>17</sup>

The *sociological* interpretation of history goes back as far as the Arab Ibn Khaldun; was developed by Vico, Turgot, Condorcet, Comte and Spencer; and has its ablest modern historical representatives in

Professors Giddings of Columbia, Thomas of Chicago, Wobhouse of London and Durkheim of Paris. Giddings describes it as "an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital and psychical causes, working together in a process of evolution." One of its chief concerns is to account for repetitions and uniformities in historical development and to formulate the laws of historical causation.<sup>18</sup>

But the latest and most important of all types of historical interpretation, and the one which most perfectly represents the newer history, is the *synthetic* or "collective psychological." According to the view of the adherents of this type of historical interpretation no single type of "causes" is sufficient to explain all phases and periods of historical development. Nothing less than the *collective psychology* of any period can be deemed sufficient to determine the historical development of that age, and it is the task of the historian to discover, evaluate and set forth the chief factors which create and shape the collective view of life and determine the nature of the group struggle for existence and improvement. The most eminent leaders of this school of historical interpretation have been Professor Lamprecht of Leipzig, Professor Marvin in England, Professor Breasted of Chicago, Professor Turner of Harvard, and Professors Robinson and Shotwell of Columbia University.<sup>19</sup>

#### 4. *The Future of History.*

Even this scanty sketch will reveal to the most casual reader the fact that the "New History" is not a dream of the future, but a present and powerful reality. The most impregnable position of the older political and episodic history has been our universities, which have been mainly dominated by professors trained in Germany, and, as a consequence, thoroughly enamoured of the typical German historiography of the Nineteenth Century with its adulation of the state.

The fact that the university is the chief source of historical training and inspiration has served to perpetuate this older variety of history until it has become so anachronistic as to threaten the very existence of history itself. The vital question is as to whether the academic historians will awaken to the fact that the majority of them have dropped behind the procession and will readjust their vision of history so as to absorb these new developments, or whether they will allow them to be absorbed by psychology, economics, sociology, geography, jurisprudence and natural science until history becomes like a recluse shut off from the world of real life and vital activities and perishes from atrophy.

The inflexible and archaic attitude of the current historiography lost for history the department of economic history, in which the most important historical results of the last quarter of a century have been accomplished. For instance, with such noble subjects for its attention as the toilet of Louis XIV,

<sup>14</sup> See L. M. Bristol, *Social Adaptation*.

<sup>15</sup> See the article on "Psychology and History" in the *American Journal of Psychology*, October, 1919.

<sup>16</sup> See E. R. A. Seligman, *The Economic Interpretation of History*.

<sup>17</sup> See A. H. Koller, *The Theory of Environment*.

<sup>18</sup> See Shailer Matthews, *The Spiritual Interpretation of History*.

<sup>19</sup> See the article "The Historian and the History of Science" in *The Scientific Monthly*, August, 1920.

tory in its entirety—political, economic, social, psychological or esthetic, ethical, and teleological—in place of a shredded section based upon a single viewpoint.

Another false implication is this: that those who favor the chronological plan are influenced by the "What-comes-next" principle. A course of study is to be praised or condemned, not as to whether it follows chronology or not, but according to the socializing value gotten out of it. And if, perchance, the chronological order lends itself to just as socializing use of material as any other plan and, in addition, offers something more, the scales may be considered as turned in favor of the chronological plan. I wonder if the critic sees nothing in chronology but "What-comes-next"?

Chronology, it seems to me, functions in a very vital way—both horizontally and vertically. Horizontally when we associate as contemporary, parallel closely interwoven movements. Slavery in United States history has these contemporary aspects: Slavery and the need for a supply of labor; slavery and Southern control of politics; slavery and the Westward movement; slavery and the rise of the humanitarian spirit. Chronology functions vertically when we put cause and effect in proper sequence or prepare the way for understanding a new era by a careful study of the preceding era out of which this new era grew or away from which this new era is to change its course. Gamaliel Bradford quotes Grover Cleveland as saying: "I do not understand any problem until I know how it came to be." And the Bulletin itself says, page 48: "The gradual and orderly evolution, step by step, of institutions and conditions is of the very essence of history." And may I add: As every institution and condition is intimately interwoven with other contemporary institutions, chronology must function at once both vertically and horizontally, if we are to give the student the totality of historical problems.

*Chronological sequence* should not be put in opposition to the problem method of teaching as on page 87. They are not antonyms or alternatives, but parts of a complete whole. The object of sequence is to enable one to understand the problem. Nor can the sociological view of history be contrasted with that of the mere annalist without danger of confusion in thought. The annalist has been superseded, not because he told events in order of time, but because his selection of material was not vital and he failed to perceive relationships, contemporary and successive.

The chronological order, again, is an important factor in developing the spirit of toleration. Says President Hadley in his "Standards of Public Morality": "If we start from the distant past and study the development of the various rights and usages, we shall have a good chance of arriving at a common understanding. People are more ready to accept a legal or moral principle which bears a little hard on their own interests if they see that it resulted from public necessities in the past than if they think it was specially trumped up for the occasion by some enemy of theirs."

Further, beginning with Ancient History as in the

chronological plan, we find our task easier pedagogically. Moving slowly, the youthful student is able to grasp fundamental factors and viewpoints, without being confused by details. And it is factors and viewpoints that work for the socialization of the pupil. "Remoteness in time is immaterial." We have a direct spiritual kinship with ancient Judea, Greece and Rome. I am inclined to question the opinion on page 47 that "the period since the Seventeenth Century is richer in suitable materials for secondary schools and is worthy of more intensive study," if applied to pupils of the age of fourteen and fifteen years. Is not this opinion a case of falling into the error condemned on page 11 of "judging youth by adult attitude and forgetting the fundamental principle of youth's needs and digestive capacity"? Facts are soon forgotten—ancient or modern. It is viewpoints that we apply at once and in later life.

## II. A CONSTRUCTIVE POLICY

California schools offer a continuous, compulsory course of education from six years of age to eighteen; regular day school for all to sixteen; continuation work from sixteen to eighteen for those who drop out of regular school at sixteen. We are not obliged then in our intermediate schools to base the course of study (as in the Bulletin, page 12) "chiefly" on the consideration that pupils will leave school all along the way from the sixth year to the ninth. Continuation work for those who drop out at sixteen is based on the immediate needs of these pupils, both vocational and civic, and in the most direct and concrete way.

For the regular pupil who will remain with us from six to eighteen, we are free to be guided wholly by the principle laid down on page 12: "Adaptation of the subject matter and method to his immediate need of social growth." We may plan to cover the social science round, once and then again, in any way we see fit. Our wanderings in time and space will enable us to give variety, color and freshness to the presentation of social relationships and to pass on to the child his full historical inheritance.

If we arrange our world circuit in any particular order, it will not be because that order is absolutely necessary to "meet immediate needs." Any order of subjects can be made to serve that purpose by selecting out of the subject assigned topics or problems adapted to the needs of the students under consideration. To quote the Bulletin, page 36: "Every single course in history may be so organized that the pupil will inevitably acquire some familiarity with economic, social and civic factors in community life, just as in civics and problems, he will inevitably learn much history."

Although no one order of subjects is imperative, still I believe in the high school period we can utilize to the greatest advantage a full four years social science round. We have—in the Los Angeles High School—1st Year: Ancient History; 2d Year: Medieval and Modern History; 3d Year: American History and National Problems; 4th Year: Civics one term and Social Problems the other term. Out of a pos-

sible eight terms, three only are compulsory, yet we have 60 per cent. of the pupils enrolled in social science courses. The citizenship work of the Social Science Department is largely supplemented by courses offered by the English Department, three terms out of their compulsory six being devoted to patriotic and civic literature and discussion. I should be glad to share citizenship responsibility with the English Department in a way which would secure one subject of the socializing type on every pupil's program each term, giving the English Department the first two years (usually compulsory) and making the last two years compulsory in the social science course.

Community Civics in the 9th Year does not seem to me a wise recommendation for Los Angeles and other cities where Community Life is taught throughout the Elementary Grades. "Vocations" or "Occupations" also have a place in the Elementary course, making Vocational Civics unnecessary. In the Los Angeles High School, in the last ten weeks of the A 10 term, as the full-day compulsory period draws near to its end, we are giving vocational guidance and planning programs to hold the student for the ensuing two years if possible.

Ninth Year Civics not only duplicates or repeats other contemporary courses, but it also tends to eliminate 12th Year Civics. Now the subject matter of 12th Year Civics is adult, yet within the range of the student's ability. What he is taught in the 12th Year, he may use all the rest of his life in the form in which it was taught him. It does more than vaguely socialize his attitude. It functions definitely and practically (needless to say, I have in mind a term of Civics preceded by a year of American History, and not that one-year mixed course which has so long burdened with an impossible task both teacher and student).

When we begin our second social science round in the high school, we shall cover the same broad field as in the elementary school, but with some variation in aims and methods. Says the Elementary Course of Study for Los Angeles City: "The aim of social science teaching in the grades is to socialize children by using their own experiences upon which to build ideas of other peoples, even though they are far away in time and place." In the high school I should like to change this to read: "The aim of History teaching in the high school is to socialize young people by considering the experiences of other peoples and other times in order that we may discover the significance of our own." Hence I reverse the elementary order and go from past to present. "History studies the past," says Doctor Moore, "but always for the purpose of enlightening us concerning the present and to make us prepare for the future."

In the Senior Year devoted to Problems: Civic and Social, I should vary the approach as follows:

First. Stating the problem.

Second. Surveying it historically.

Third. Considering possible solutions.

In organizing a Course of Study, I have been guided by the principle of integration; in the selection

of material, I am concerned with interpretation of human experience; and as to method, I am disposed to utilize question, story or drama, topic, or problem—as one or another seems best suited to the particular material to be presented.

"Interpretation of History or of human experience depends," says Doctor Moore, "upon one's philosophy of History. The historian of the future will try to make us acquainted with the streams of tendency which are pouring themselves through the ages in the purposive undertakings of the nations. To do this, he must start with a philosophy of History and, by its aid, must select the facts which are worth having."

Teggart in his "Prolegomena to History" sees utility in history in three possible aspects: "Patriotism, ethical conduct and teleological outlook." In Teggart's "Processes of History," our attention is called to the factors at work in history and the resulting possible interpretations. The factors: Geographic situation, inherited idea system, and human nature; the interpretations: economic, political, psychological.

The political interpretation of history, like chronology, has come in for much destructive criticism. It is not necessarily associated with kings and battles. Zimmern in his "Nationality and Government" redefines "Political." He asks: "What are the common needs and concerns for which institutions have been devised? Two stand out above the rest: one, economic; the other, political. For his physical existence, man needs material goods: food, clothing, shelter and domestic comfort. As a spiritual being, man needs Justice and Liberty." Spencer, reviewing Fish's "Development of American Nationality" in the American Historical Review, says: "We welcome the deliberate selection of political development as the central point of view, on the ground that the American people have expressed themselves more fully in their political life than elsewhere and more so than has been the case with other nations"—the resulting problem is to make clear the relation of social and economic factors to this central process.

Perhaps the interpretation of history which has been most neglected is the psychological, and yet Ellwood says in his "Introduction to Social Psychology": "Social psychology is important for scientific history, if the latter is to attempt any explanation or interpretation of the connections between the facts or events it describes. The modern school of historians, in general, have come fully to recognize that history, in so far as it is interpretative, is a socio-psychological science."

We may find an analogy for adopting the psychological interpretation of history in the new use to which psychology is being put in the industrial world. Says Kelly in his "Hiring the Worker": "Had a fraction of the imagination been bestowed on the problems of the working force, which has been so successfully applied to materials, methods and machinery, we should have been further along in the matter of enlightened labor management." Tead, in "Instincts

in Industry," names as the instincts at work affecting a man's efficiency as a worker: "Family, workmanship, possession, self-assertion, herd, submissiveness, pugnacity, play impulse and curiosity."

Why limit teachers and pupils by predigested, highly problemized sections of history? Furnish them rather with the keys to the citadel of history, instincts and interests, heredity and environment, human nature and geography. Give them a philosophy of history, esthetic, ethical or teleological. Suggest interpretation as an "open sesame" to the significance of history.

And, finally, let us keep our social science teaching on a high plane. We are considering the experiences of other peoples and other times in order to discover the *significance* of our own. "History," says Stubbs, "holds a place second to none in the roll of sciences—whether we look at the dignity of the subject matter, or at the nature of the mental exercise it requires, or at the inexhaustible field over which the pursuit ranges, the knowledge of the adventures, the development, the changeeful careers, the varied growths, the ambitions, aspirations, and, if you like, the approximating destinies of mankind."

## Short Sketch of Party History

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Like so many of our other customs, political parties had their beginning in England. Macaulay and Hallam state that the Cavaliers and Roundheads in the days of Charles I were the forerunners of later Tories and Whigs. Most writers claim that political parties in England had their origin in the fight to prevent the succession to the throne of the Catholic Duke of York, about 1680. The success of the duke would have meant the triumph of the divine prerogative, with royal dispensations, the absolute church and business restriction. The defeat of the duke would have meant the triumph of free constitutional government, toleration in religion and freedom of trade. Thus the alignment of people into parties turned upon their attitude toward the central government. One party sought to have conferred upon the central government as much power as possible—call this the center-seeking, or centripetal force; the other wishes to detract from the central government as much power as possible, and confer it upon the local authorities—call this the center-fleeing, or centrifugal force. And about these two ideas have been formed the two great parties that have since divided the voters in England and in the United States. Neither group has adhered to any one name, or to any one definite set of principles, through the entire time, but the general principle has always been present. The central government party in England has been known as the Tory, Conservative and Unionist; in the United States as the Federalist, Whig and Republican. The local government party in England has been known as the Whig and Liberal; in the United States as the Anti-Federalist, Democratic-Republican and Democratic.

Thus the people loyal to the king in the colonies were called Tories; and the patriots, being enemies of the king, were Whigs. These same Whigs opposed the formation of the Union in 1789; they wished for much local authority in the States; they opposed the constitution, and, when it was finally adopted, they were determined that it should have as little power and authority as possible.

Both elements were present in the administration of Washington. By a common but inexplicable law, these elements took shape about two leaders. Hamilton openly admired the form of the English government, and about him clustered the friends of a strong national government; and the other element clustered about Jefferson—the very antithesis of Hamilton in every respect. Hamilton's ideas called for a strong central government—and his ideas prevailed. Why? Partly because of the strength of the man, but mostly because the conditions of the times made a strong government imperative. For ten years before the adoption of the Constitution, the country had been suffering from too much democracy, and Hamilton's strong law and order measures found ready acceptance. The assumption of the state debts; the National Bank; the tariff, a national money and the internal revenue, were all national measures. Jefferson was a born radical and his residence in France had intensified his natural tendencies. He admired the French Republic and accused Hamilton of trying to set up a monarchy; and the Federalists, led by Hamilton, nicknamed their opponents democrats, then a term of reproach. Jefferson preferred to be called a Republican, in contrast to monarchy, and for years his party was called Democratic-Republican. In the Alien and Sedition Laws, the Federalists overstepped the bounds of reason and wisdom. The times did not call for so drastic a measure, and the voters replied by defeating the party that passed them. Jefferson's support made the assumption of state debts possible; but he spent the remainder of his life explaining that Hamilton had "tricked" him into giving his support to assumption.

Once in power, the Democrats were compelled, by circumstances, to adopt many nationalist measures. They bought Louisiana without constitutional sanction; they passed the Non-Importation Act, the Embargo Act, the Non-Intercourse Act—all interfering with private business; and the bank charter would have been renewed had it not been for the casting vote of the vice-president. The Federalists, out of

power, strong in New England, became the party of states' right. They evaded the embargo, they criticized the administration, and they openly refused to support the Second War with England.

Many instances can be cited from history to show that any people, in time of great stress, favor centralized authority, even to electing a dictator. From its experiences in the War of 1812, the Democratic party became national. In Madison's first message to Congress after his second election, he recommended a strong standing army and navy, a national bank, a protective tariff, internal improvements at national expense, and a national university. The army and navy were increased, the second bank was established, the first protective tariff was passed; and had Madison and Monroe not weakened on the roads and canal idea, the nation would have embarked upon a policy of internal improvements at Federal expense.

Historians tell us that the Federalist party ceased to exist after the War of 1812. What really happened was this: the Democratic party became national and adopted all the Federalist policies, and the members of that party, perforce, voted the Democratic ticket. Hence during the decade following the War of 1812, there was but one great party in the United States. But soon divisions began to appear in the party that had twice overwhelmingly elected Monroe. The people of the different parts of the country professed to believe that their economic interests were divergent from those of the other sections, and factions began to form behind certain leaders, or favorite sons who espoused these ideas—and the era of sectionalism and personal politics had arrived. Clay, Webster and Adams became the champions of the nationalist policies, such as the bank, the tariff and internal improvements; while Jackson and his followers slipped back into the strict construction ideas of an earlier period. With the formation of the Whig party—Whig in name but Tory in principle—the Democratic party lost its nationalist elements, and soon became the party of states' rights and particularistic reaction, opposing the Federal courts, the National Bank, the tariff and internal improvements. The Whig party favored all these measures; but the strongest cement of the party, if the name "party" can be applied to a group of voters so loosely organized, was hatred of Andrew Jackson, and when the "Old Hero" passed off the scene of action, the Whigs lost their cohering influence. Fear of defeat prevented it from taking any definite stand on the question of slavery; the control of the Democratic party seemed to be permanently in the hands of pro-slavery leaders. Under such conditions, the vast body of anti-slavery voters had no party home, and as a protest against the vacillation of the Whigs, and the irresponsibility of the Democrats, they formed the Republican party. It was a minority party, a "boss-busting" party, and its leaders were downright political insurgents. It fell heir to the nationalist ideas of the Whigs, and, in the main, it has adhered to these principles ever since.

It requires no great effort to belong to a major party, but the member of a minor party must be

sincerely devoted to principle. He risks political ostracism; he throws away all hope of success and office; he becomes a political non-conformist. And since all the great world movements began as a minority, their early history is characterized by sincerity, enthusiasm, crusading zeal, direct and open support of the righteous thing. In its infancy, the Republican party possessed all these attributes. But its sudden success in 1860, due to a political accident, attracted to its ranks many men less sincere than were its founders; and the certainty of success since the Civil War has often begat carelessness, or even corruption, within its ranks.

The surrender of Lee at Appomattox marks the end of an era. The Civil War, in its broadest aspect, was a contest between the industrial north and the agricultural south. The needs, and consequently the convictions, of the two sections differed materially. And when the southern leaders were defeated in 1860, northern capital and northern industry came into control of the government, and they have retained that control ever since, working through whichever party happened to be in power. As a result, the dividing line between the two great parties during the past sixty years has been very indistinct. In fact, a well-informed voter, with a flexible mind, could have voted with either party, and have done his political principles no violence thereby. The Democrats were as willing as the Republicans to grant aid to the railroads; neither party has been a unit on the money question; when out of power the Democrats talked glibly about lowering the tariff, but when the opportunity came they lacked nerve to keep their promise.

The Union Army was a volunteer army. It was an army of the states, paid and generated by the Federal government. Through political influence, many local politicians secured commissions from their state governor. When the war closed, they returned and resumed their former occupation. Their ability in politics, plus a successful war record, easily landed them in office. The era of pure and simple politics in our history closed with the firing on Fort Sumter. Thereafter the great body of the people took little interest in public affairs. They were weary of the endless discussions and the war, they wanted to get to work, to make money and get rich. They believed that with the surrender of Lee all danger to the Union was passed, and, after voting for the latest military hero, they quietly went to sleep and left public affairs to the leaders. For twenty years after the war, both parties suffered from a lack of competent leadership. In fact, the Democrats were so destitute of leaders in 1872 that they endorsed the nomination of a Republican. Such leaders as we then had, had risen to prominence largely on questions growing out of the war. They lacked the vision and the inclination to cope with the newer questions then coming up for solution. They were well qualified to deal with dead issues, and the party platforms were largely a code of memories.

For a brief period in 1896 it seemed as if we might have an entirely new alignment of parties. The bolt



of the gold Democrats at Chicago, and the secession of the silver Republicans at St. Louis, seemed to point to the formation of two parties, each sectional. But conditions changed. Good crops in the United States and poor crops in Europe caused an increase in prices of farm products. The influx of gold from Alaska and South Africa, together with a freer use of deposit currency, increased our circulating medium, and prices were further boosted. The western farmers paid off their mortgages and began to buy automobiles. And since economic distress causes political unrest, the revolt of 1896 was soon forgotten. With the two great parties, the desire "to catch with their surcease success" outweighed all other considerations. Candidates have been selected, not because of their inherent personal ability, but because of their availability. The platforms, instead of being a positive declaration of positive principles, have been composed of glittering generalities, designed to catch votes, and capable of an interpretation to suit the locality.

Today, the two great parties have drifted far from their ancient moorings. The strictest construction today is broader than the broadest constructions of one hundred years ago. The political descendants of a states' right party established the department of agriculture, extending various forms of assistance to the farmers of the states. They created an Interstate Commerce Commission, to take over the work formerly attempted by the states. They broke up the tribal life of the Indians. They were strong for a Federal Income Tax in 1894, stronger, in fact, than the Supreme Court was. The Democratic party today, under Woodrow Wilson, would not be recognized by Thomas Jefferson. Before we entered the war against Germany it passed a Federal Income Tax law; it established a hierarchy of Federal Banks that would make Alexander Hamilton turn livid with envy; it passed the Clayton Anti-Trust Act—Labor's Magna Carta; it told the railway executives how many hours their employees should work; it exercised its influence to say to the states who should vote; and what the people should drink. During the war it took control of the railroads and other common carriers; it levied internal taxes as high as huge Olympus; it took from the control of the states four million men, clad, fed, paid and led many of them to a foreign strand; and it revived, revamped, recorrugated and renamed the Alien and Sedition Laws of John Adams' day.

Yet the Republicans would have done the same. Taft advocated the federal incorporation of corporations doing an interstate business. Standing at the tomb of John Brown at Ossawatimie, in the burning rays of an August sun, 1911, Roosevelt proclaimed his "New Nationalism," which, if completely carried out, would have obliterated state boundaries, and would have made of the states mere administrative subdivisions of the Union.

Human hopes and human creeds,  
Have their root in human needs.

A change in the conditions of life demands a change in the methods of life. No man can be indicted for changing his mind; but the motive for the change is

always open for examination and criticism. The leader who resolutely sets his face against all change is not a safe guide. He is attempting "the portals of the Future with the Past's blood-rusted key."

Today party lines are in a flux. Whether the World War was an interruption, or a revolution, we are yet to learn. No definite political issue bisects the voters today. The leaders in neither party are united on any one clear-cut issue. If it is difficult to write history, it is impossible to write prophecy. What form parties will take in the future we cannot tell. But I make this prediction: that in the creed of the parties of the future, the old, old principle—the rights of the individual, versus the will of the social group—will find a prominent place.

The sketch of Lenin by Alexander Kuprin, which appears in the *Atlantic Monthly* for January, is one of the most mystical accounts of this much-discussed man that has yet appeared. "Lenin is not a genius; he is only moderately able. He is not a prophet, only an ugly evening shadow of a prophet. He is not a great leader; he lacks fire, the legendary fascination of a hero; he is cold and prosaic and simple, like a geometric figure. . . . In his personal and intimate character there is not a single outstanding feature; they have all disappeared in political struggles and polemics; in the one-sidedness of his thought. . . . Beauty and art do not exist for Lenin. . . . He is equally indifferent to separate human acts."

In his article, "European Wars and Their Lessons," the Duke of Northumberland says:

"Whatever mistakes the Germans may have made, they never cherished the illusion that the war could be won anywhere but on the main fronts. Their whole strategy was directed towards developing their maximum strength on those fronts, and, as a corollary, inducing us to detach troops from those fronts by creating as many embarrassments for us as possible in distant theatres of war."

In his analysis of "The Republican Triumph" (*Contemporary Review* for December), Mr. S. K. Ratcliffe says: "This matter of the overwhelming demand for a change is the essence of the situation. . . . Certain it is that if Mr. Harding . . . had merely sat on his veranda for the encouragement of the reporters and photographers, his triumph would have been perfectly secure. He was virtually elected at the moment of nomination. . . . Mr. Wilson's destiny has been tragically different from this. The whole sweep of modern history does not furnish any parallel to the case of the eminent and highly endowed man who, in the hour of uttermost disaster for his Government and party, lies stricken in Washington. . . . The catastrophe comes at the end of a long spell of years during which the personal and political animosity expressed toward the President has spread and deepened in an undescrivable degree. The phenomenon is almost unique in our epoch and we shall probably have to wait many years before it is adequately explained."

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# A Reading List on Historic and Fancy Costume

For domestic art, amateur theatricals,  
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COMPILED BY ANNE M. BOYD AND MABEL V. MILLER  
University of Illinois Library  
1920

A list of inexpensive, illustrated books, mainly of travel and of fiction suitable for a High School Library, which contain suggestions for costume design, color combinations, dramatic groupings, and stage settings.

## GENERAL

Excellent colored plates are found in general Encyclopedias, especially in the German and French ones.

Beegle. Community drama and pageantry.  
Browne. Secrets of scene painting and stage effects.  
Chubb. Festivals and plays in schools and elsewhere.  
Clark. How to produce amateur plays.  
Craig. On the art of the theatre.  
Duval. Handbook of American pageantry.  
Ellsworth. Textiles and costume design.  
Herts. Children's educational theatre.  
Hughes. Dress design.  
Joyce and Thomas. Women of all ages. 3 v.  
Mackay. Costumes and scenery for amateurs.  
Mackay. How to produce children's plays.  
Mackay. Little theatre in the United States.  
Menpeo. World's children.  
Morris. Home life in all lands.  
Putnam. The lady.  
Rhead. Chats on costume.  
Robida. "Yester-year"—Ten centuries of toilette.  
Traphagen. Costume design and illustration.

The National Geographic magazine contains from time to time useful plates in black and white and in color showing the dress of the interesting nationalities of the world.

The following juvenile series are rich in illustrative material on costume:

Little cousin series. Includes all important countries of world.  
Little cousin of Long Ago Series. Historical—Athenian—Roman, Norman, etc.  
Little People Everywhere series—Marta in Holland, Kathleen in Ireland, etc.  
Peeps at many Land series. All important countries.  
Twins Series by Lucy Fitch Perkins—Dutch Twins, Eskimo Twins, etc.

## ORIENTAL

Arabian nights. Stories from; illustrated by Edmund Dulac.

Bacon. Japanese girls and women.  
Bishop. Among the Tibetans.  
Bishop. Korea and her neighbors.  
Browne. Japan; the place and the people.  
Canton. Bible story.  
Erman. Life in ancient Egypt.  
Fergusson. Adventure, sport and travel on the Tibetan steppes.  
Firdusi. Story of Rustem.  
Havell. Indian sculpture and painting.  
Headland. Chinese boy and girl.  
Headland. Home life in China.  
Holt. Rugs, oriental and occidental.  
Jackson. Persia, past and present.  
Kelman. From Damascus to Palmyra.  
Kipling. Kin; illustrated by J. L. Kipling.  
Loti-pseud. Egypt.  
Loti-pseud. Morocco.  
Menpes. Japan; a record in colour.  
Miyamori. Tales from old Japanese dramas.  
Monroe. Turkey and the Turks.  
Munson. Kipling's India.

Omar Khayyam. Rubaiyat; illustrated by Edmund Dulac.  
Ostler. Arabs in Tripoli.  
Pennell. Among the wild tribes of the Afghan frontier.  
Petric. Tunis, Kairouan & Carthage.  
Surridge. India.  
Sykes. Ten thousand miles in Persia.  
Wallace. Ben Hur (Players' ed.).  
Williston. Japanese fairy tales.

## CLASSICAL

Baddeley & Duff Gordon. Rome and its story.  
Becker. Gallus.  
Becker. Charikles.  
Blümner. Home life of the ancient Greeks.  
Bulfinch. Myths and legends.  
Guhl. Life of the Greeks and Romans.  
Homer. Iliad for boys and girls by A. J. Church.  
Homer. Odyssey for boys and girls by A. J. Church.  
Homer. Adventures of Odysseus and the tales of Troy; Padriac by Colum; illustrated by Willy Pogany.  
Homer. Adventures of Ulysses by Charles Lamb; illustrated by M. H. Squire.  
Virgil. Aeneid for boys and girls; by A. J. Church.

## MEDIEVAL

Addison. Arts and crafts in the Middle ages.  
Arthur, King. Story of Sir Galahad; illus. by W. E. Chapman.  
Arthur, King. Story of and passing of Arthur; by Howard Pyle.  
Cervantes. Don Quixote; retold by Judge Parry; illus. by Walter Crane.  
Chaucer. Tales of the Canterbury pilgrims; illus. by Hugh Thomson.  
Egan. Everybody's St. Francis.  
Lacroix. Manners, customs and dress during the Middle ages, and during the renaissance period.  
Pyle. Wonder clock.  
Pyle. Otto of the silver band; illus. by author.  
Robin Hood. Bold Robin Hood; illus. by Louis Rhead.  
Robin Hood. His deeds and adventures; illus. by L. F. Perkins.  
Robin Hood. Robin Hood; illus. by Howard Pyle.  
Scott. Ivanhoe; illus. by E. Boyd Smith.  
Scott. Ivanhoe; illus. by Milo Winter.  
Scott. Talisman; illus. by S. H. Vedder.  
Tappan. When knights were bold.  
Wagner. Tristan and Isolde; illus. by G. A. Williams.

## MODERN EUROPEAN

### Austria-Hungary

Bovill. Hungary and the Hungarians.  
Holbach. Dalmatia.  
Monroe. Bohemia and the Cechs.  
Stokes & Stokes. Hungary.

### Belgium

Boulger. Belgian life in town and country.

### Brittany see France

### Dutch see Netherlands

### England—General

Bickley. King's favourites.  
Calthrop. English costume.  
Godfrey. English children in the olden time.  
Huish. Happy England.  
Marshall. Island story.  
Martin. Civil costume of England.  
Quennell and Quennell. History of everyday things in England.  
Synge. Social life in England.

### Early English

Gillsat. Forest outlaws.  
Howard. English travellers of the renaissance.  
Kingsley. Hereward the wake.  
Stevenson. Black arrow; illus. by N. C. Wyeth.  
Tappan. In the days of Alfred the great.

### Age of Elizabeth

Addelshaw. Sir Philip Sidney.  
Bennett. Master Skylark; a story of Shakespeare's time.



- Besant. London in the time of the Tudors.  
 Ingram. Christopher Marlowe and his associates.  
 Kingsley. Westward ho!; illus. by C. E. Brock.  
 Kingsley. Westward ho!; illus. by Harold Copping.  
 Lamb, Charles and Lamb, Mary. Tales from Shakespeare; illus. by Norman Price.  
 Mitchell. Shakespeare for community players.  
 Salaman. Shakespeare in pictorial art.  
 Scott. Kenilworth; illus. by H. J. Ford.  
 Shakespeare. As you like it; illus. by Hugh Thomson.  
 Stevenson. Treasure island; illus. by N. C. Wyeth.  
 Tappan. In the days of Queen Elizabeth.  
 Winter. Shakespeare on the stage.
- Seventeenth Century**  
 Ashton. Social life under the regency.  
 Bunyan. Pilgrim's progress; illus. by brothers Rhead.  
 Dix. Merryllips.  
 Fyvie. Wits, beaux and beauties of the Georgian era.  
 Godfrey. English children in the olden time.  
 Marryat. Children of the new forest; illus. by Hardy and Read.
- Eighteenth and early Nineteenth Century**  
 Ashton. Social life in the reign of Queen Anne.  
 Austen. Pride and prejudice; illus. by C. E. Brock.  
 Barrie. Quality street; illus. by Hugh Thomson.  
 Besant. Fifty years ago.  
 Blackmore. Lorna Doone; (Rittenhouse classics).  
 Caldecott. Second collection of pictures and songs.  
 Craik. John Halifax, gentleman; illus. by A. B. Stephens.  
 Dana. Two years before the mast; illus. by E. Boyd Smith.  
 Dickens. Dickens children; illus. by Jessie Willcox Smith.  
 Dickens. Christmas carol; illus. by C. E. Brock.  
 Dickens. David Copperfield; (Rittenhouse Classics).  
 Dickens. Great expectations.  
 Dickens. Old curiosity shop. 2 vols (Gadshill ed.).  
 Ditchfield. Old English country squire.  
 Eliot. Silas Marner; illus. by Hugh Thomson.  
 Gaskell. Crawford; illus. by M. V. Wheelhouse.  
 Sichel. Sheridan 2 vols.  
 Stevenson. Kidnapped; illus. by N. C. Wyeth.  
 Tristram. Coaching days and coaching ways; illus. by Hugh Thomson and Herbert Railton.  
 Wheatley. Hogarth's London; pictures of the manners of the eighteenth century.
- France**  
 Baldwin. Story of Roland; illus. by R. B. Birch.  
 Baldwin. Chansons de France; illus. by M. B. de Mouvel.  
 Edwards. Alsace-Lorraine.  
 Edwards. Brittany and the Bretons.  
 Bibbs. Men and women of the French revolution.  
 Johnson. Along French byways.  
 Marshall. History of France.  
 Montorguel. Bonaparte; illus. by J. G. M. Onfroy-Brieville.  
 Mouvel. Joan of Arc.  
 Murray. Sketches of the old road through France to Florence.  
 Plon. La civilité puérile et honnête expliqué; illus. by M. B. de Monvel.  
 Plon. Vieilles chansons pour les petits enfants; illus. by M. B. de Monvel.  
 Weyman. Any of his novels dealing with French history published by Longmans.
- Germany**  
 Marshall. History of Germany.
- Hungary see Austria-Hungary**
- Holland see Netherlands**
- Ireland**  
 Begole. Happy Irish.  
 Carleton. Traits and stories of the Irish peasants.  
 Hull. Boys' Cuchulain.  
 Johnson. Isle of the Shamrock.  
 McDonald. Kathleen in Ireland.
- McCarthy. Irish land and Irish liberty.  
 Somerville. Irish memories.
- Italy**  
 Biagi. Men and manners of old Florence.  
 Duff-Gordon. Home life in Italy.  
 Howells. Tuscan cities.  
 Monroe. Sicily.  
 Renwick. Romantic Corsica.  
 Villari. Italian life in town and country.  
 Zimmern. Italy of the Italians.
- Netherlands**  
 Dodge. Hans Brinker; illus. by G. W. Edwards.  
 Edwards. Marken and its people.  
 Stevenson. Spell of Holland.
- Normandy see France**
- Poland**  
 Winter. Poland of today and yesterday.
- Russia**  
 Graham. Through Russian central Asia.  
 Norman. All the Russias.  
 Rappoport. Home life in Russia.  
 Wheeler. Russian wonder tales.
- Scandinavia**  
 Clark. Charm of Scandinavia.  
 Daniels. Home life in Norway.  
 Monroe. In Viking land.  
 Rüs. Old town.  
 Willmot-Buxton. Stories of Norse heroes.
- Scotland**  
 Geierson. Children's tales from Scottish ballads; illus. by Allan Stewart.  
 Johnson. Land of heather.
- Spain**  
 Calvert. Southern Spain.  
 Fitzgerald. In the track of the Moors.  
 Hartley. Spain revisited.  
 Meakin. Land of the Moors.  
 Penfield. Spanish sketches.  
 Wigram. Northern Spain.
- Switzerland**  
 Spyri. Heidi; illus. by M. L. Kirk.
- NORTH AMERICA
- General**  
 Eggleston. History of the United States and its people.  
 Earle. Two centuries of costume in America. 2 vols.  
 Hutchinson. Men who found America.  
 McClellan. Historic dress in America.
- Indians**  
 Brownell. Indian races of North and South America  
 Curtis. Indians' book.  
 Dellenbaugh. North-Americans of yesterday.  
 Dixon. The vanishing race.  
 Inman. Old Santa Fé trail.  
 James. Indian Blankets and their makers.  
 Longfellow. Song of Hiawatha; illus. by Frederic Remington.  
 Higginson. Alaska; the great country.  
 Hodge. Handbook of American Indians 2 v. (U. S. Bur. of Ethnology Bull. no. 30).
- Colonial period**  
 Addison. Romantic story of the Pilgrim Fathers.  
 Bennett. Barnaby Lee.  
 Cockshott. Pilgrim Fathers.  
 Cooper. Last of the Mohicans; illus. by E. Boyd Smith.  
 Franklin. Autobiography; illus. by E. Boyd Smith.  
 Brooks. True story of Benjamin Franklin.  
 Coffin. Old times in the colonies.  
 Crawford. Social life in old New England.  
 Earle. Child life in colonial days.  
 Irving. Rip Van Winkle; illus. by Caldecott.  
 Irving. Knickerbocker's history of New York; illus. by Parrish.  
 Pumphrey. Pilgrim stories.  
 Sale. Old time belles and cavaliers.  
 Sears. Gleanings from old Shaker journals.  
 Sharpless. Quaker boy on the farm and at school.

- Usher. Story of the Pilgrims.  
 Wharton. Salons, colonial and republican.  
*Revolutionary Period*  
 Earle. Stage coach and tavern days.  
 Forsythe, comp. Old songs for young America.  
 Fox. Ersking Dale, pioneer; illus. by F. C. Yohn.  
*Nineteenth Century*  
 Alcott. Little women; illus. by Jessie Willcox Smith.  
 Crawford. Romantic days in the early republic.  
 Forrest. Women of the South.  
*U. S. Civil War*  
 Page. Two prisoners; illus. by Virginia Keep.  
 Spofford. Three heroines of New England romance.  
*The West*  
 Hough. Story of the outlaw.  
 London. Call of the wild; illus. by Paul Branson.  
 Parkman. Oregon trail; illus. by Frederic Remington.  
 Parrish. Great plains.  
 Roosevelt. Ranch life and the hunting trail; illus. by Frederic Remington.  
 Good editions of the historical novels of such writers as Mary Johnston, S. Weir Mitchell, Thomas Nelson Page, and Winston Churchill contain valuable frontispieces, and often other good illustrations.

## CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICAN

- Carson. Mexico; the wonderland of the South.  
 Davis. Three gringos in Venezuela and Central America.  
 Franck. Vagabonding down the Andes.  
 Franck. Tramping through Mexico, Guatemala and Honduras.  
 Gadow. Through Southern Mexico.  
 Henderson. West Indies.  
 Hill. Cuba and Porto Rico.  
 Plummer. Roy and Ray in Mexico.  
 Starr. In Indian Mexico.  
 Wallace. Fair God; illus. by Eric Pape.  
 Winter. Mexico and her people of today.

## FANCY DRESS

- Anderson. Stories from; illus. by Edmund Dunlac.  
 Aria. Costume; Fanciful, historical and theatrical.  
 Barrie. Peter Pan; illus. by Arthur Rackham.  
 Greenaway. Marigold garden.  
 Grimm. Fairy tales; trans. by Mrs. Edgar Lucas; illus. by Arthur Rackham.  
 Hall. Gypsy's Parson.  
 Maeterlinck. Children's Blue bird; illus. by Herbert Paus.  
 Mother Goose. The real Mother Goose; illus. by B. F. Wright.  
 Mother Goose. Jessie Willcox Smith Mother Goose.  
 Shakespeare. Midsummer nights' dream; illus. by Arthur Rackham.  
 Spielmann. Kate Greenaway.

## Book Review

- BETTEN, FRANCIS S. (S. J.) & KAUFMANN, ALFRED (S. J.).  
 The Modern World, xiii, 429 pp. Allyn & Bacon,  
 Boston, 1919. \$1.40.

The volume under review is the first of a two-part text, which, when completed, will narrate the story of European history from the time of Charlemagne to the present day. Part I contains a summary of ancient times extending from "before the deluge" to the end of the reign of Charlemagne, a summary of about one hundred pages, which is nearly one-quarter of the book. The remaining three hundred and thirty-five pages bring the narrative to the Peace of Westphalia. The last sixty pages deal with the "Disruption of Religious Unity," the period of the Reformation.

The schematic arrangement, if somewhat mechanical, is not without merit for an elementary text. Variations in type are used for emphasis, topics are numbered and pro-

vided with convenient headings, cross references are frequent, and suggestions are made for outside reading. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen, the maps are excellent. The general arrangement of material follows, in fact, Willis Mason West's *Modern World*, from which the authors have borrowed copiously as they indicate in their preface.

The *raison d'être* of the book is found in a statement of Pope Leo XIII's, that, for school use, texts must be composed calculated to expound and propagate the science of history with due regard to truth, but without exposing young students to any pitfalls. It would be futile to deny that history should be written with due regard to truth or that young students should be protected from pitfalls. Unfortunately, the attempt to combine these two worthy motives seldom leads to very happy results. There can never be any consensus of opinion as to just how much risk the young student can safely run in the interests of the truth, unless that consensus of opinion is attained by "authority," which is a serious handicap to the writing of history. In the book under review the pitfalls avoided are theological, but in many another text coming from the press in these days the pitfalls avoided are political. It is difficult to believe that in the long run pitfalls of both kinds are not avoided better by not *trying* to avoid them.

Fathers Betten and Kaufmann have frankly incorporated in their history considerable dogmatic theology. In a few instances this has marred the historical proportions of the story. On the other hand, the treatment of various ecclesiastical institutions is most illuminating and could be read with profit (and without danger) by young students of the Protestant faith. Except for the somewhat fuller treatment of religious subjects, this book follows West very closely and has the merits of that excellent text.

H. M. VARRELL.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from November 27 to December 25, 1920

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

## AMERICAN HISTORY

- Armbruster, Eugene L. The Wallabout prison-ships; 1776-1783. Brooklyn N. Y.: [the author]; 263 Eldert St. 29 pp. \$2.00.  
 Beard, Charles A., and Bagley, W. C. A first book in American History. New York: Macmillan. 460 pp. \$1.48 net.  
 Bowman, George E. The Mayflower Compact and its signers. Boston, Mass.: Society of Mayflower Descendants. 18 pp. \$1.00.  
 Bruce, Robert. Gettysburg; a survey of the military operations which culminated at Gettysburg in the summer of 1863. Clinton, N. Y.: [the author]. 31 pp. 50 cents.  
 Kraft, H. F., and Norris, W. B. Sea power in American History. New York: Century Co. 372 pp. \$4.00 net.  
 Lingley, C. R. Since the Civil War [Hist. of the U. S.]. New York: Century Co. 635 pp. \$2.65 net.  
 Stephens, Kate. Life at Laurel Town in Anglo-Saxon Kansas [in the late sixties]. Lawrence Kansas: Alumni Assn., Univ. of Kansas. 250 pp. \$2.50 net.  
 Vignaud, Henry. The Columbian tradition on the discovery of America and the part played therein by the astronomer Toscanelli. New York: Oxford Min. Press. 62 pp. \$3.00 net.

- Wharton, Anne Hollingsworth. In old Pennsylvania Towns. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 331 pp. \$5.00 net.  
 Wright, Thomas G. Literary culture in early New England, 1620-1730. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 322 pp. \$6.00 net.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Fronto, Marcus Cornelius. The correspondence of Marcus Cornelius Fronto [etc.], Vol. 2. Loeb Classical Library. New York: Putnam. 371 pp. \$2.25 net.  
 Plutarch. Plutarch's Lives, Vol. 9: Demetrius and Anthony, Pyrrhus and Caius Marius. Loeb Classical Library. New York: Putnam. 619 pp. \$2.25.  
 Thucydides. Thucydides, Vol. 2: History of the Peloponnesian War, Books 3 and 4. Loeb Classical Library. New York: Putnam. 445 pp. \$2.25.  
 Van Loon, Hendrik W. Ancient man; the beginning of civilization [in story form for boys and girls]. New York: Boni & Liveright. 121 pp. \$3.00 net.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Ault, Norman. Life in Ancient Britain; a survey of the social and economic development of the people of England from the earliest times to the Roman Conquest. New York: Longmans, Green. 260 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Cross, Arthur L. A shorter history of England and Great Britain. New York: Macmillan. 942 pp. \$4.50 net.  
 Hamilton, Ernest W., Lord. The Irish rebellion of 1641. New York: Dutton. 401 pp. \$8.00 net.  
 Henry, Robert M. The evolution of Sinn Féin. New York: Huebsch. 318 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Hyland, S. George K. A century of persecution under Tudor and Stuart sovereigns from contemporary records. New York: Dutton. 474 pp. (12½ p. bibl.). \$8.00 net.  
 Mathieson, William L. England in transition, 1789-1832. New York: Longmans, Green. 285 pp. \$6.00 net.  
 Park, Joseph H. The English reform bill of 1867. New York: Longmans, Green. 285 pp. \$3.00 net.  
 Pollard, A. F. The evolution of Parliament. New York: Longmans, Green. 398 pp. \$7.50 net.  
 Ryan, William P. The Irish labor movement; from the twenties to our own day. New York: Huebsch. 295 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Salmon, Arthur L. Plymouth [England]. (The story of English Towns.) New York: Macmillan. 119 pp. \$1.50 net.  
 Wyatt-Davies, E. An elementary history of England. New York: Longmans, Green. 278 pp. \$1.20 net.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Bouton, S. Miles. And the Kaiser abdicates; the story of the death of the German Emperor and the birth of the republic told by an eye-witness. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 271 pp. \$2.50 net.  
 Brown, William A. The groping giant; revolutionary Russia as seen by an American democrat. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 204 pp. \$2.50 net.  
 Boyce, James. The Holy Roman Empire [new edition, enlarged and revised]. New York: Macmillan. 575 pp. \$3.75 net.  
 Edwards, Geo. Wharton. Belgium, old and new. Philadelphia: Penn Pub. Co. 337 pp. \$10.00 net.  
 Glaser, F. L., Editor. Scenes from the court of Peter the Great, based on the Latin diary of J. G. Korb, a secretary of the Austrian legation at the court of Peter the Great. New York: N. L. Brown. 174 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Hazen, Charles D. Modern Europe. New York: Holt. 855 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Lansbury, George. What I saw in Russia. New York: Boni & Liveright. 172 pp. \$1.50 net.  
 Univ. of Chicago, Members of Dept. of History. Study manual for European history [a bibliography]. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 51 pp. 75 cents net.  
 Varney, John. Sketches of Soviet Russia. New York: N. L. Brown. 288 pp. \$2.25 net.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Gayle, Charles E. Seaborne trade, Vol. 1; the cruiser period. (Hist. of Great War based on official documents.) New York: Longmans, Green. 442 pp. \$7.50 net.  
 Fife, George B. The passing legions [the work of the American Red Cross in Great Britain]. New York: Macmillan. 369 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Halsey, Francis W. The Literary Digest history of the World War. New York: Funk and Wagnalls.  
 Hoffmann, Conrad. In the prison camps of Germany; a narrative of "Y" service among the prisoners of war. New York: Assn. Press. 279 pp. \$4.00 net.  
 Holt, Lee. Paris in shadow [1916-1917]. New York: John Lane. 310 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Hungerford, Edward. With the doughboy in France [American Red Cross in France]. New York: Macmillan. 291 pp. \$2.00 net.  
 Ludendorff, Erich von. The general staff and its problems; the history of the relations between the high command and the Imperial German Government as revealed by official documents. New York: Dutton. 2 Vols. 721 pp. \$15.00 net.  
 Mattox, W. C. Building the emergency fleet. Cleveland, O.: Penton Pub. Co. 279 pp. \$5.00 net.  
 Muirhead, Findley, Editor. Belgium and the Western Front: British and American. New York: Macmillan. 368 pp. \$5.50 net.  
 Murray, Sir Archibald. Sir Archibald Murray's despatches; June, 1916-June, 1917. 2 Vols. [Vol. 2 is composed exclusively of folded maps]. New York: Dutton. 229 pp. \$15.00 net.  
 Page, Thomas Nelson. Italy and the World War. New York: Scribner. 422 pp. \$5.00 net.  
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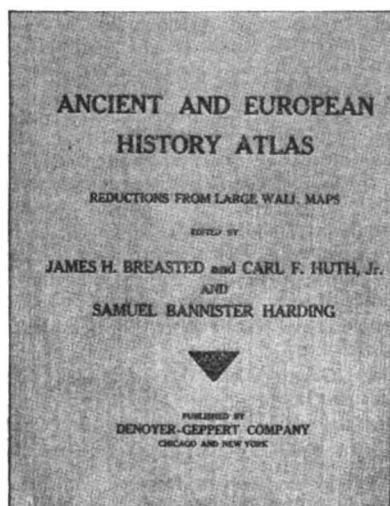
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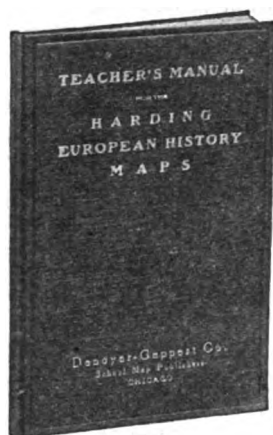
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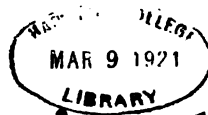
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Volume XII.  
Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1921.

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## Europe Revisited

BY PROFESSOR LYNN THORNDIKE, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

In 1914, after a June of enjoyable wandering among old French towns, castles, cathedrals, and inns—the one month of my life in which I learned most medieval history, and after a July in high Alpine altitudes—from such centers as Chamonix, Riffelalp, Kandersteg, and Grindelwald climbing still higher, I descended into a world filled with rumors of war. At Strasburg, on July 30th, a German officer searched my bag for bombs and a regiment went off amid a cheering crowd. Soldiers guarded the bridges until the train reached Bavaria. Next afternoon, in Nürnberg, appeared the proclamations putting the country in a state of readiness for war and the Kaiser's speech telling how the sword had been forced into his hand,<sup>1</sup> and all that evening the streets were thronged with expectant but for the most part sobered and awe-struck throngs. On August 1st, as the train passed through Cologne, we received news of the declaration of war against Russia; that evening I walked across the Belgian frontier and the next was in London. I remained in England working in the British Museum until December, when I visited southern France before returning to this country. The summer of 1919 I spent entirely in England reading in the British Museum and Bodleian Library. I am inclined to agree with those who say that the best thing to do with the war is to forget it, but I mention these two previous visits to "The New Europe" because it will be difficult and perhaps not desirable to separate entirely the impressions received during the recent semester and summer abroad, of which the editor of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK has asked an account, from those other glimpses of Europe during and after the war which form their background. My recent trip was first in March and April to three lands visited for the first time, Sicily, Greece, and Egypt; then in the course of May up the Italian peninsula from Taranto to Stresa, and by way of Spiez, Lausanne, Neuchâtel, Dijon, and Sens to Paris, where most of June was spent, with excursions to Reims, Provins, and Beauvais, and then to England until the return sailing in September.

### NO NEW EUROPE.

The New Europe! I have only found it a little older and considerably more worn than it used to be. Not to mention aged statesmen with obsolete policies who persist in dominating the situation,

<sup>1</sup> In the next morning's Munich newspaper the wording of this clarion call to arms had been somewhat toned down.

London looks just the same as it did before the war. It looked more so in 1920, when the khaki had disappeared from the streets and public places and the tumult and shouting of peace celebrations had died away and there had been a little time to paint and repair the buildings, than it did in 1919. The streets and bazaars of Cairo are now woefully westernized, but Rome and Naples seemed to have run down a great deal since last visited in 1909, and it was a pleasure to find Florence the same old medieval town as in 1912. In Cairo, by the way, a heavy snow last winter brought down the roofs of a number of mud-brick or rubble houses. One must remember that those cities of belligerent countries, which were not actually bombarded, stood stagnant and neglected during the five years of war, while our cities were rebuilding, expanding, and changing in appearance. Cities in neutral countries are, however, sometimes an exception to this, and Athens had evidently grown greatly since the last Baedeker was written and the last photographs and picture postcards were made. In the country nature had seized its opportunity to make gains at the expense of man, except where aerodromes and barracks disfigure the landscape; and the ruins of antiquity, left without custodians, became more picturesque through the encroachment of vegetation. The temples crumble, but the flowers bloom. Mutilated soldiers, except perhaps in Paris, were not seen as often as might be expected, less so in London than the previous summer, although complaints were heard that men would rather go without an artificial limb than submit to all the red tape necessary to procure one.

### REVIVAL OF INTOLERANCE.

What is new to some countries, or rather a revival of old evils that we hoped had passed away, is that existing governments seem to think that the best way to check Bolshevism and to make people contented with their present form of government is to clamp down the screws on individual liberty and make everyone as uncomfortable as possible. Labor and strikers also appear to think this same method the best way of attaining their ends. Another old evil that has cropped out again most dishearteningly in the train of war-time propaganda and restrictions on freedom is the spirit of intolerance, unfairness, and misrepresentation towards others, the refusal to look at both sides of the question as the study of history trains us to do. But one need not visit Europe to experi-

ence these painful phenomena. Just as the early church had its heresy-hunters as well as its glorious martyrs, just as the crusades were followed fast by the Inquisition, so the self-sacrifice of those who died in the war has been succeeded by the selfishness of those who refuse even to consider any other viewpoint than their own. Put yourself in his place. Peace, internal or external, is not possible without tolerance and fairness, and teachers of history should take the lead in inculcating these virtues, so essential both to historical-mindedness and to either national or world welfare.

So far since my return the questions put to me by fellow-teachers have shown rather more interest on their part in the expense and comfort or difficulty of a trip to Europe now compared with the same before the war and with the cost of living in this country, than in the conditions of historical scholarship and research or in the political and social conditions abroad. Perhaps the readers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* will have somewhat the same curiosity.

#### PASSPORTS AND POLICE.

Travel abroad is certainly more difficult than it used to be. For one thing, it takes more time. First, there is the time wasted in connection with passport and police regulations, which often involve preliminary notifications and delays, as well as the time spent and discomfort experienced in going to and waiting at offices or being routed out of trains at frontiers in the middle of the night. All this absurd rigmarole, varying greatly in each new country visited and seemingly arranged to suit the whim of the bureaucratic machine without regard to the convenience of the traveler, and actually administered by ignorant underlings, who make an utter mess of it, has been, however, considerably lightened since I left the continent. As an instance of the stupidity of its actual administration may be mentioned the experience of my English roommate on the boat from Catania to Piraeus, where, despite his perfectly visaed passport, he was delayed for some time and taken off to the police station because his name was Seymour and they were on the lookout for some Bolshevik named Semi. Personally, I was caused some unnecessary additional inconvenience by the advice given by the United States Government to its citizens to secure in this country visas to all the countries they intended to visit. Such consular visas usually had to be secured all over again in Europe, involving additional expense as well as effort and time, and might more easily and usually more cheaply have been secured there in the first place.

#### TRAVEL BY BOAT.

Second, there is the time spent in waiting for boats, whose date of sailing was very apt to be postponed, and the time lost in travelling upon them, since they make nothing like the speed which they did before the war. For example, I had to wait most of February for a boat to the Mediterranean; the return sailing-date from England was put off a week and then the boat, although the same on which I crossed to Cherbourg in seven days in 1914, took ten

days from that port to New York. The boats are also in many ways less comfortable than they used to be; for example, there is almost always a shortage of steamer chairs. In the Mediterranean the steamship lines were especially undependable and many of them had not resumed service. In Sicily there was no telling when a boat might come along and whether one could get accommodations on it if it did. The excursion steamers had not been restored upon the Nile. The British in Egypt were complaining that they had been waiting for months without securing passage home, owing to all the boats arriving "full up" from India and the East.

#### TRAIN SERVICE.

Train service was almost equally slow, tardy, and inadequate everywhere except in England, where it had gotten back almost to normal again and was much better than in 1919, and in Switzerland, where the third-class carriages are as clean and comfortable as ever. The ticket-collector at the gate at Domodossola laughed very heartily when I simultaneously gave up a first-class Italian ticket and presented a third-class Swiss ticket to be punched. In Greece and Egypt the coal shortage seriously affected the train service and no Sunday trains were run in either country. During the war the Greek locomotives often burned wood. Just to visit Cape Sunion from Athens one would need to spend two nights there, as the only train from Athens arrived there after dark and the only one back left early in the morning. In Sicily I left the hotel at 3 A. M. to visit Girgenti and omitted Segesta rather than repeat the performance. The morning train from Naples to Paestum was not quite so early, but there was no train back until evening and nothing to eat to be had in Paestum. Also, the evening train was some three hours late, so that it was considerably after midnight when I alighted at Cava dei Terreni and managed, thanks to a full moon, to find a hotel—and a good one! Less satisfactory was an arrival at Exeter at 3 A. M., where there were no porters at the station and no rooms vacant at the hotels. Porters were plentiful in Egypt and Italy, but scarce in France and England outside of London and Paris. In Egypt travelling first-class had somewhat lost its charm for the British, since the more prosperous of the natives crowded the first-class compartments, while the second-class accommodations were left almost vacant, although they looked clean and comfortable enough. In Italy the corridors of every express or through train were crowded with people standing. All this goes to show that the prospective tourist must not plan to do too much, must be ready to abandon plans for visits which prove impracticable, must proceed slowly and allow plenty of time. It is very difficult to see more than one place a day, or even to maintain one-night stands for long, and many places on branch lines are hard to get at all.

#### INFORMATION AND LANGUAGES.

Travel was also difficult because of the difficulty of procuring information. The tourist offices were still torpid and sluggish after their long period of

hibernation. Baedekers are out-of-date in much of their information, although there is no reason for leaving them at home for fear of being considered pro-German, as some of my fellow-passengers confessed they had done. The Italians, for that matter, have no rancour against the Germans; the Greeks will quite impartially insist upon their good points to you; and the Egyptians in the fervor of their anti-British nationalism are sending their sons to German universities to be educated. The French still show signs of fearing and hating the Boches, but in ways that can only hurt themselves. In London one still sees shop-signs in German from before the war and the Queen's Hall Orchestra in its nightly popular promenade concerts devotes every Monday evening to a program from Wagner. It seemed to me that in Italy and France, English was less spoken and understood than it used to be.

#### EXPENSES.

As for expense, the ocean passage is a heavy item, and the boats in the Mediterranean are still more expensive considering the shorter distance. From Alexandria to Taranto cost twenty-eight pounds, to Trieste thirty-six. Railroad fares have advanced much as in this country and there are no special rates for circular tours. Beware of taking many heavy trunks, for I saw a British naval officer charged 1,700 lire for checking his baggage through from Venice to London. Cabs and taxis within towns are cheap compared to our prices, but conveyances for any distance or by the day are expensive on the continent. Especially in Greece, where they are most necessary to visit ancient sites, such as Delphi, Mycenae and Tiryns, they were considerably beyond the reach of the purse of a single tourist with only professorial purchasing power, although a party might have afforded one. In England the motor char-a-bancs are reasonable and comfortable and reach many places previously rather inaccessible. Hotels and restaurants, when the favorable exchange is taken into account, are a great deal cheaper than in this country, and scarcely more expensive than before the war. Even in one of the most fashionable hotels in the Italian lake region, a house of the very first class and splendidly situated, I paid the equivalent of only a dollar for my room and a few cents more for dinner.

#### HOTELS.

It is true that the hotel at which one stayed before the war is liable to exist no longer. At Viterbo all three hotels were closed. Writing and telegraphing ahead for a room does little good, at least, in the case of a solitary traveler. In large cities, hotels are apt to be crowded with citizens who prefer that mode of life to keeping house with the existing prices of food and servants. In such cases, it is advisable after you have once secured a room to retain and pay for it, if you go off on a trip of a few days and wish to regain your lodging upon returning. In the large cities, too, hotel prices are higher. On the other hand, in delightfully situated spots, like Syracuse, Amalfi and Ravello, which depend upon tourists and holiday makers for their clientele, there were excellent hotels open and well-nigh empty. In France

the hotels in smaller towns are much cheaper than in Paris.

#### STRIKES IN ITALY

In Italy, especially Rome and the north, frequent strikes somewhat enhanced the difficulty or discomfort of travel. We landed at Taranto on the first of May with some foreboding, but soldiers guarded the station, and a night train, the first, we were told, to leave that day, took us safely to Naples. No sleeping or restaurant cars, however. Indeed, before I left Italy the employees of the *Wagon-Lit* company everywhere struck in sympathy with the demands of the Italians for wages equal to those of employees on trains in other countries. This was one railroad strike in which the sympathy of the public seemed to be with the men, the *Wagon-Lit* company being none too popular. In Rome, one day you could not send a telegram; the next you could not post a letter; the third you could not hire a cab. In Bologna the servants in all hotels and restaurants had been on strike for months, and I did not stop at Milan because of the strikes reported there. In other Italian towns waiters would proudly return the tip you offered, explaining that their percentage was now included in the fixed charge.

#### PRESENT ADVANTAGES OF TRAVEL.

These deterrents to travel are not without their corresponding advantages. This year on both crossings of the ocean the passengers were unusually congenial. Fewer persons make the attempt to cross and these do so with a more serious purpose or interest, or, because of a long-seated love for Europe, travel, and the past. Almost every one on the boat going over seemed an old-timer. Points of historic or scenic interest are not constantly assailed by crowds of tourists, and one can often be alone with nature and antiquity or observe European society undiluted. There seemed very few Americans abroad except in Rome and Paris. The homeward tide of those engaged in war service, which inundated London in the summer of 1919, had ebbed long before the summer of 1920.

#### WOMEN TRAVELERS.

Despite the difficulties of travel, American ladies did not hesitate to attempt it, sometimes by themselves. On the boat going over I sat at a table with one other man and five ladies, one of seventy-four years, and her travelling companion, two Canadian girls, and an American girl. On the boat returning were two large parties, which seemed made up chiefly of school-girls from Kentucky.

#### SICILY.

Sicily is a delightful country, especially when one comes to it straight from snowbound streets of New York, and one which I would recommend more American teachers of history to visit. The classical remains of this western Hellas vie with those in Athens itself, and there are also the noteworthy monuments of the Norman period. In variety and beauty of natural scenery and in the earliness of springtime, Sicily has the advantage over Greece. Indeed, in these respects, Palermo, Girgenti, Syra-

cuse, and Taormina will hold their own even with Capri, Sorrento, Amalfi, and Ravello.

#### MEDITERRANEAN PROSPERITY.

The Mediterranean lands—Sicily, Greece, and Egypt—surprised me by their apparent prosperity and their seeming seclusion and remoteness from the great war which had but recently been waged. Of course, there is nothing like the luxury which has recently run rampant in this country, but a Sicilian testified that the peasants there were better off than before, and the business men of Athens admitted that they had grown rich during the war. Cairo was the one city visited where sugar could be had in plenty and where the table d'hôte still had so many courses that one could scarcely consume them all. I do not know how well off the Egyptian peasants were, but they seemed energetic and industrious. There were no insurrections in Egypt during my stay, the only approach to a demonstration that I saw being as the boat was leaving Alexandria, when a considerable number of students bound for Italian or German universities were given a rousing send-off by a large crowd on the pier to the evident distaste of some British army officers on board.

#### MESOPOTAMIA.

I am told that little appeared in our papers while I was away concerning the situation in Mesopotamia, but it was the constant cause of sensational news despatches and editorial and parliamentary foreboding and criticism of governmental policy in England throughout last summer. The Arabs were in revolt here, there, and everywhere, capturing officers and even women, cutting off detachments; the British troops were shooting them down, bombarding them, and burning villages. "It is odd that we do not use poison gas on these occasions," wrote Colonel T. E. Laurence sarcastically in *The Sunday Observer*. About one hundred thousand troops and a heavy expenditure of money were necessary to hold this territory with about two million inhabitants. Such the first fruits of the mandate system!

#### GREECE AND THE ALLIES.

At the time of my visit, perhaps the only people outside the British Empire with any particularly friendly feeling towards it were the Greeks, to whom the British Government turned when it gave up hope of receiving any aid from the United States in "keeping order" in the Near East, supporting the Greeks, since they seemed well supplied with troops and money, in their claim to possess themselves of considerable portions of the Turkish Empire. Some of the Greeks, however, had begun to tire of being kept under arms through so many recent wars. M. Clemenceau, who just preceded me in Egypt, claimed to be a friend of Greece in a speech made to Greeks at Alexandria. He "observed that he desired the union of all the Greeks and he added that at the Peace Conference he had not sufficiently supported the cause of Greece because as a Frenchman he had to concentrate his efforts on defending the interests of his own country." (*Egyptian Gazette*, April 22, 1920.) If correctly reported, a frank avowal!

#### STORIES OF CLEMENCEAU.

Another interesting remark connected with Clemenceau's visit to Egypt was his criticism of the pyramids to the effect that they were "pretentious, puerile, and costly in human life." An Egyptian journal suggested that some medium should now get into touch with Cheops and ascertain his opinion of the Treaty of Versailles. Which reminds one of the story in the recently published diary of Colonel Repington that "Clemenceau complained of the difficulty of presiding over Lloyd-George and Wilson, since the former imagined himself Napoleon, while the latter considered himself Christ."

#### BRITISH IMPERIALISM.

In England itself imperialism seems strongly entrenched at present. The magnificent response of the British colonies in the war encouraged it. In the summer of 1919 *God Save the King* was played as a matter of form by the orchestra at all theatres and concerts, but it was the singing of *Rule Britannia*, *Britannia rules the waves*, that the public really seemed to enjoy, and I did not altogether like the tone in which the women especially sang it. This was less noticeable the past summer. But in an electioneering pamphlet published last summer by the coalition government, one of the boasts is that "The Coalition Government secured the most brilliant presentation of the Empire's case at the Peace Conference, with most satisfactory results." Moreover, even those Liberals who are most hostile to the Coalition and most critical of the Treaty of Versailles seldom or never utter any criticism of what the British Empire received by that treaty. In parliament even General Dyer found numerous defenders.

#### PARLIAMENT.

Despite its large majority in parliament, the present government now seems to be universally unpopular and has steadily lost ground in bye elections. The opposition minority in the House of Commons often seems to have the best of the debate and contains noteworthy individualities, Lord Robert Cecil, the steadfast defender of a bona fide League of Nations; the Irishman Devlin, who at the time he was suspended last summer was said to be personally one of the most popular members, and Lieutenant-Commander Kenworthy, taunted by his opponents with being a Bolshevik, who is indefatigable in pestering the ministers with embarrassing questions and irrepressible in debate. Even when apparently squelched, he is apt to bob up again triumphant. Starting to criticize the present incidence of taxation, Commander Kenworthy makes the unfortunate beginning, "I tried to buy some cheap mouth-organs," which excites merriment among his opponents before he is able to add "for my children." He goes on to state that harmonicas, which used to be only one shilling, are now six and not as good as before, and claims that this is due to the tax upon imported musical instruments. The Chancellor of the Exchequer retorts that mouth-organs are classed as toys and are free of duty, and it looks as if Commander Kenworthy had the worst of it. But a week or two later he rises in his seat and reads a letter from the

Treasury showing that he was right and Mr. Austen Chamberlain wrong. Even Mr. Lloyd-George, usually master of the art of putting his opponents in the wrong, catches a Tartar in Commander Kenworthy. Speaking of the perils of the Polish situation, the Prime Minister pauses to remark sarcastically to the opposition, "I don't see what there is to laugh about in that." "We were not laughing at the Poles," explains Commander Kenworthy.

#### THE FEELING ABROAD TOWARDS AMERICANS.

Many have asked me if I did not find a hostile attitude towards Americans in Italy and elsewhere, and I can make the sweeping assertion that I did not see the least sign of anything of the sort, with the possible very slight exception of what was probably merely officiousness upon the part of a stupid policeman when I entered England at Newhaven. I rode in the cheapest tram cars that rumble over the trackless pavements of Italian cities, sat in the crowded opera at Dijon and Palermo and Catania, walked over country roads of Greece, shared state-rooms with Englishmen from Sicily to Greece and Greece to Egypt and Egypt to Italy, boarded in a pension at Rome where everyone else was an Italian, sat by the hour on the crowded sidewalks of the boulevards of Paris drinking—coffee, without experiencing anything but courtesy and friendliness. I twice overheard, as I have often done in years past, interesting discussions of America and Americans by Britishers, but these were not intended for my ears. A number of Englishmen expressed to me their sense of the lack of real friendliness, if not growing distrust, between our two peoples, and their failure to comprehend the reason for it. A number of other Europeans who had once lived in this country expressed their intention of returning here as soon as possible.

#### CONDITIONS OF HISTORICAL RESEARCH.

The conditions of historical research do not seem to have either notably improved or deteriorated as a result of the war, except that the ink provided by libraries is much worse and the cost of clerical or stenographic assistance greater. I examined some manuscripts in the libraries of Florence and Bologna, but upon arriving at Venice found that the library of St. Mark's had not yet been brought back from Florence, where it was stored for safety during the war. During most of June I worked in the department of manuscripts of the Bibliothèque Nationale, with its admirable selection of printed books of reference for the students of medieval history or learning lining the wall close at hand; in July, August, and early September in the Bodleian and British Museum as last summer.

#### NEED OF ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL.

This trip has again impressed me with the need of more illustrative material in our teaching of both the classical and medieval periods, if we are to do justice to their art, their daily life, and the history of civilization. There are numerous objects in many museums which, if permission could be obtained to photograph or otherwise reproduce them for use in historical teaching, say by The American Historical

Association or The Carnegie Institution, and a copious and proper selection of them were made by qualified persons, would be of immense assistance in convincing students of the reality and concreteness of the past. Sets of lantern slides should be multiplied, giving detailed as well as general views of Gothic art and the like. The war has not increased my interest in modern history or in modern civilization, but it has emphasized the preciousness and increasing rarity of the remains of the past:

A wretched rubbish-heap, in ruin lies

The town where Joan came to crown her king;

But still those graceful Gothic towers rise,

Still from their piers the pointed arches spring.

The broken vault seems closer to the skies;

Through vacant choir window song-birds wing;

While shattered shaft or buttress bravely tries

Still to its long-allotted place to cling.

Glass, wood, and slate are gone, but no mere core

Or skeleton remains of what has been;

That facade mounts majestic as of yore,

Still rich in statue's niche and sculptured screen,  
And arcade delicate as fairy's dreams.

Pale, naked, scarred, but living yet is Rheims.

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# Russia—Cheering and Disheartening

BY PROFESSOR C. C. ECKHARDT, Ph.D., UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

For over three years the Bolsheviki in Russia have been making the most momentous Socialist experiment in all history. They have not only tried to bring about a reorganization of industrial society, but they have attempted to establish a new principle in representative government. Instead of representation on the basis of purely geographical districts they have also given representation to each unit of industrial workers. In spite of powerful opposition from within that has been lavishly aided in a financial and military way by England, France and the United States, the Bolsheviki seem more firmly entrenched than ever. They have defeated a long line of subsidized enemies, the last being Wrangel. They have made peace with Poland and England. Recent trustworthy observers think that at present the Soviet government is the only workable government for Russia and that it will endure indefinitely.<sup>1</sup>

There has been much misrepresentation, much distortion of the news concerning Bolshevik Russia. But in spite of censorship and propaganda it is possible today to give a fairly accurate statement concerning Russia under Bolshevik rule.

This paper will consider the cheering and constructive things that the Bolsheviks have done and also point out the disheartening, the discouraging facts that must be apparent to any unbiased student.

## THE THEORIES AND AMBITIONS OF THE BOLSHEVIKI

The Bolsheviki are socialists, followers of Karl Marx, though of a radical stamp. They regard the present capitalistic society as noxious, injurious to the workers; they think it a legalized system of exploiting the workers by the capitalists. They believe the only hope for the workers would lie in organizing to take over all industries and government and running them for the benefit of the workers. Capital and capitalistic society should be abolished.

Since society is to be organized on an industrial basis all laws should be made by Soviets or councils representing the workers. Instead of having a geographical system of representation in our legislatures, congresses and parliaments as we now have, the Bolsheviki have combined a system of industrial representation with the regional, this being called the soviet system.

It is their ambition to extend their system of government, the soviet, together with workers' control of industry to all countries of the world. To bring about this world revolution, the Bolsheviks have organized the Third International, with headquarters in Moscow and branches in most countries having a socialist group, though in no country outside of Russia is this branch at present the dominant group.

## THE CHEERING ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE BOLSHEVISTS

Let us now consider the cheering and definitely constructive things that the Bolsheviks have achieved. Here I am not implying that these achievements are necessarily cheering to all observers. I am calling them cheering because they imply the establishment of conditions more democratic, more socially wholesome than conditions prevailing previously in Russia. In this connection at times it will be necessary also to chronicle some of the failures, the imperfections of the Soviet system, some of the instances in which the theory was dropped or modified in such a way as to imply failure or part failure of the Bolshevik theories.

They have given the world an example of a workmen's republic, theoretically controlled by representatives of organized labor. Each factory has a soviet or council, which elects one or more delegates to an urban soviet. Each village, county and city elects delegates to a provincial congress as well as to a regional congress. Each regional, county and urban soviet elects delegates to an All-Russian Congress of 1500, meeting in Moscow. This Congress elects a Central Executive Committee, which sits in Moscow, and is composed of two hundred delegates or less and meets every three or four months. This committee elects the People's Commissars, who have charge of various administrative departments. It is a workmen's state; no one that does not work may vote.

They have placed all factories in the hands of the workmen. But local and general governments supervise industry, too; in fact, the central government has become dictatorial in controlling all industries. The soviet government has taken over all banks, forests, mines, railroads and waterways as national property. They have taken over all lands formerly held by the landlords, the Tsar, the state and the monasteries and given much of it to the peasants for cultivation, though in theory it still belongs to the state. In addition, some of the land thus taken over has been used for state purposes, such as model farms, agricultural experiment stations, nurseries, seed farms and stock farms.

They have opened thousands of schools and have made it compulsory for every child to attend school, though at present this cannot be fully enforced owing to a great lack of teachers, school buildings and equipment. The British Labor Delegation estimates that only 15 to 20 per cent. of the children get an effective education. The Bolsheviki are publishing cheap editions of all Russian authors so that for a small sum every one may procure the best national literature. Foreign classics are to appear in the same form. However, we lack information as to what degree this plan has been carried out. The Bolsheviki have opened many new libraries, postoffices and workmen's theatres. They have applied democracy to living conditions. Inequality between rich and poor has been

<sup>1</sup> E. g., H. G. Wells, in *New York Times*, Nov. 7, 1920; H. G. Alsberg, *New York Nation*, Nov. 24, 1920, p. 588.



eliminated. The single standard of living has been applied as nowhere else in the world. The Russian peasants have in the past two years had more to eat than they ever had before. The workmen are better housed than in any previous time. In Moscow, Petrograd and other Russian cities large houses were taken over by the state, and after allowing a certain number of rooms to the owner and his family the rest of the house was turned over to the workers and their families, each being given three, four, five or more rooms, depending on the size of the family.

According to their laws the Bolsheviks aim to treat women workers well. Women are given full pay eight weeks before and eight weeks after confinement, and nursing mothers for a year after childbirth are given extra food and are exempt from certain kinds of heavy and tiring work. But in the present condition of confused finances and shortage of many materials these laws have not been fully carried out.

It has often been claimed that the Bolshevik propaganda did much to undermine German morale, though this is contested by some. However, the Poles when negotiating their armistice with Russia recently, stipulated that there was to be no fraternizing between the soldiers, this indicating that capitalistic Poland feared the proselyting influence of the Bolshevik soldiers on the Polish soldiers.

The Bolshevik government published the secret treaties of Russia, thus giving a serious blow to secret diplomacy. At the time, and subsequently, this was regarded by some as outrageous, but it made known the truth that the European opponents of Germany were waging the World War not merely for moral purposes, but that each of the great powers, England, France, Italy and Russia, was fighting for material advantages, and these have been made manifest and embodied in the peace treaties.

In some respects the Bolsheviks have established American conditions. They have separated church and state; they have deprived the church of its control over education; they have forbidden denominational teaching in the schools. In some respects they have imitated France. When separating church and state they confiscated all church property, but allowed it to be used for religious purposes with the consent of the state, these conditions being the same as those established by the French Separation Law of 1905.

They have applied the plan of continuous control of elected deputies. Any deputy in any local or national soviet may be recalled at any time. But this has not been allowed to work freely. When delegates favorable to the central government have been recalled the central government has disfranchised the offending region. However, Bertrand Russell, the English socialist, who was in Russia in the summer 1920, says in a report that is on the whole unfavorable to the Bolsheviks,<sup>2</sup> that the recall is frequently used, in Moscow alone there being as many as thirty recalls a month.

#### THE DISHEARTENING CONDITIONS

The Bolsheviks have been able to remain in power; they have done some forward-looking, constructive, wholesome things. But there are also many discouraging and condemnatory things that must be pointed out.

They are undemocratic; they stand for the rule of a class, the workers. Only workers may vote. They have disfranchised private employers of labor, private merchants and brokers, all middlemen, persons living on an income from investments, monks, clergymen, members of the former service of the Romanoff family, and anyone incurring the disfavor of the Soviet government. However, the so-called Soviet ambassador to the United States, Mr. Martens, says that the clergy may now vote.

In addition, voters are not given equal voting powers. The city voters when represented in the county, provincial and regional soviets have greater representation than the rural districts. It is difficult to state the exact discrepancy. In the regional Soviet there is one representative for every 25,000 inhabitants of the rural districts and one representative for every 5,000 voters in the city. Mr. Spargo estimates that the voting strength of the city voter is about three times as great as that of the rural voter.<sup>3</sup> The Bolshevik régime is wholly the plan of the industrial workers. Since the peasants are greatly in the majority, being 85 per cent. of the whole nation, the Bolsheviks have given the urban voters greater voting power than the peasants to offset this majority.

The Bolsheviks are also undemocratic in their classification of Russians in accordance with the degree of their loyalty and usefulness. The members of the army, navy and industrial class get more food than those that are opposed to Bolshevism. A red soldier gets six times as much food through the government rationing system as does a person that still favors the old régime. Under these circumstances many old office holders and members of the middle class have outwardly, at least, turned Bolshevik, some even taking service under the soviets.

It is an historic fact that the Bolsheviks have been a minority party. This was proved in the municipal elections in October, 1917, and again in the elections of November, 1917, for the Constituent Convention. In the latter case the Bolsheviks threatened to use their political power to prevent the election of a majority hostile to them. Nevertheless, the elections went strongly against them; in a total of 783 the Bolsheviks secured only 225 seats, while the Social Revolutionaries captured 420. Lenin and Trotsky postponed the meeting of the Constituent Assembly till January 18, 1918, and failing to control it dissolved it with force January 26, and then called the congress of soviets which has been in power ever since. It is estimated that all the city workers and one-third of the peasants are Bolsheviks, and another third of the peasants think they are better off under the soviet régime and hence vote in favor of it. This

<sup>1</sup> New York Nation, July 31, 1920, p. 124.

<sup>3</sup> Spargo, The Greatest Failure in All History, 64.



explains why the Bolsheviki have been able to remain in power. But the Bolshevik leaders have never given the people a chance to vote their approval or disapproval of the present régime. To do so would result in a period of confusion; moreover, such a vote would produce few advantages and probably many disadvantages for the present rulers. Since the Bolsheviks have come into power they have gradually become more and more dictatorial, this being in part due to the disorganization produced by the war and the blockade instituted by the Allies; in part to the habit of dictatorship inherited from the Czarist absolutism. Military discipline is used to keep the members of the Bolshevik party loyal. The central government manipulates elections, dictates all important regulations of industry, punishes severely all infractions of laws. Although the Bolsheviks profess to believe in the freedom of the press, they control all newspapers and magazines. Print paper has been nationalized or socialized, just as food and fuel were, and the government allots paper only to those newspapers that agree with the government's policies. Hence none but Bolshevik newspapers are being printed now. The soviet government is therefore in practice a dictatorship by a minority.

According to the reports of Bertrand Russell, the British Labor Delegation, H. G. Wells and others, there is a breakdown in the transportation system, which seriously affects industry, commerce and general conditions of living. There is much illness and underfeeding, especially of adults. However, in the country districts food is more plentiful. But everywhere there is a great lack of adequate clothing and shoes, as well as fuel, fats, fertilizers and oils. Sanitary conditions are terrible. There have been over a million cases of typhus; malaria and smallpox have had innumerable victims. Medicines are unobtainable. Hospitals cannot accommodate their full quota of patients owing to lack of equipment. Hospitals operate only once a week. For this state of affairs the Bolsheviks are only in small part responsible; the blockade is more to blame than any other single factor.

To expect the Bolshevik to do anything for art and culture is probably asking too much at present. Some of their leaders say they have no time for art. Their efforts have been directed toward seizing and maintaining power, putting an economic and political program into force and defending it against internal and external enemies. However, they are doing something. Their efforts to furnish books cheaply and to open schools have already been mentioned. They are also offering prizes to encourage national artists and they have arranged the rich art collections of Petrograd and Moscow in chronological order so as to give an idea of historical development. According to H. G. Wells, they are taking care of the actors, literary and scientific men by giving them food and clothing, though it is distressing to read about the lack of paper, apparatus, scientific journals and books.

#### HOW THE BOLSHEVISTS HAVE CHANGED THEIR POLICIES

It is an interesting thing that when doctrinaire socialists get into power they are unable to put the socialist ideas into effect in all respects. They must make changes, concessions, adjustments to harmonize with the conditions confronting them. In many instances Lenin and Trotzky have had to change their program. At first they annulled the public debt, including all obligations to foreign investors. They argued that those were debts contracted by Tsarism, a capitalistic government, with Russian and foreign capitalists. Hence the Russian workers are justified in repudiating such obligations. But later, in the Bullitt report, it is clear that Lenin and Trotzky agreed to assume all Russia's foreign obligations, and in the recent peace terms with England the same provision is made.

At first, the Bolsheviks regarded the peasants as capitalists because they would not turn their lands over to the state. But in order to get into power, in November, 1917, the Bolsheviki changed their minds and promised to give the lands of the Tsar, the monasteries and the landlords to the peasants. However, when the land transfers had been made and the Bolshevik state was collecting revenues from these lands, it was maintained that the peasants were paying rent to the state and not taxes. But the peasants said they were paying taxes and threatened a revolt. Lenin and Trotzky gave way. Whether this is temporary or permanent remains to be seen. At present so long as a peasant works his land he is not apt to be dispossessed.

In conducting industry the Bolsheviki first tried to get along without the highly trained specialists, experts and managers, but industry was run so badly and the percentage of production was so low that it became necessary to employ these highly trained experts and managers at high salaries equivalent to their former salaries. Thus the Bolsheviki were willing temporarily to compromise with the capitalistic system, but they contend that in the future the experts will be taken from the working class and, being imbued with a spirit of social service, will have salaries nearer the level of those of ordinary workers.

The Bolsheviki never planned as much compulsion as they now exercise. The armies are used to work for the state, securing foodstuffs for the workmen in the factories, cutting wood, carting it to the railroads, repairing locomotives, constructing railway lines for the transport of crude oil, repairing agricultural implements and machines. In the spring of 1920 one army was used to cultivate the land. Originally the Bolsheviks had planned a short day of six to eight hours. But the workers are now being forced to work ten to eleven hours a day, including Sundays. But this has the sanction of the workers; they are trying to eliminate underproduction.

Originally the Bolsheviki advocated equal pay by the hour, all workers receiving the same pay. But now they pay by the piece in order to secure greater efficiency in production. Originally each worker was to have one month's vacation; but hardly any one gets

more than two weeks. One is surprised to find that there are no strikes in Soviet Russia; the government uses force to prevent them.

Originally the Bolsheviks spoke eloquently in favor of freedom of the press, of speech and assembly. But once in power they have imitated other governments in curbing these liberties in times of stress and uncertainty. Newspapers and speakers can say only those things that the government sanctions. If a meeting is to be held a permit for the speakers is necessary. A chance word of criticism may result in imprisonment or worse. The Bolsheviks have a system of espionage that rivals that of the former Tsaristic government.

Theoretically, the Bolsheviks favor proletarian rule. But Lenin says that at the present time the proletariat is too ignorant to make decisions of importance. It will take at least a generation before communism can be fully put into effect, and at times Lenin doubts whether it can ever be established. Hence there is a rule by a minority, which is really a dictatorship of the few. The real rulers now are the eighteen people's commissars, and Lenin and Trotsky control them.

Under the old régime the Bolsheviks always opposed conscription. But now that they are in power they have resorted to compulsory military service. The voluntary system failed to bring the workers into the army, so the workers and peasants have been conscripted; the soldiers are kept in a good humor through plentiful supplies of food and clothing. These facts show that the Bolsheviks are not living up to their original principles. Whenever they think it necessary and expedient to change ideas they unhesitatingly do so.

#### SOME PROPAGANDIST FALSEHOODS

It has been difficult for American readers to get the truth about Bolshevik Russia. There has been too much propaganda, too much willful distortion of the facts. Let me set down some propagandist statements that are now known to have been falsehoods.

Time and again we were told that a slight amount of Allied military aid would ruin the Bolshevik government. But now, after more than three years, the Bolsheviks are stronger than ever, and Kolchak, Yudenitch, Denekin, Wrangel and others have been overcome in spite of very extensive military and financial aid. Messrs. Walter Lippman and Charles Merz have rendered a valuable service to American readers by publishing in *The New Republic* of August 4, 1920, an article entitled, "A Test of the News," showing how frequently in the *New York Times* the reports concerning Russia between March, 1912, and March, 1920, were false, and how the news of victories was mainly an ardent hope that victory would soon crown the efforts of the anti-Bolsheviks.

We were told that Bolshevism was mainly the work of Jews, and that all Jews in Russia are Bolsheviks. But now we know that of the eighteen commissars only one, Trotsky, is a Jew, and that, although in the local administrative offices there are many Jews, one also finds members of all races of Russia. Time and again it was affirmed that the Bolsheviks had na-

tionalized all women and were breaking up the home. This report was started by the "New Europe," a British periodical. When after three months the editors learned that this statement was untrue they retracted it and made adequate apologies. But for more than a year after this retraction American newspapers continued to circulate the falsehood.

Then the report was circulated that the Bolsheviks had nationalized the children, had taken them from their parents and turned them over to the state to be cared for. But now we know that this is not true, though children are theoretically better cared for than ever before, being fed and clothed at state expense until they are sixteen, are given an education superior to that ever given in Russia before, and are protected against child labor. But parents have just as much control over their children as before, except that they do not control their education and cannot take them out of school and force them to work before they are sixteen.

Then it was stated that there were no children under ten years of age to be found in Petrograd, Moscow and other cities, and even in the country. But Mr. W. T. Goode, of *The Manchester Guardian*, reports that the opposite is true; children are numerous everywhere; he was once dining with seven men having together a total of fifty children, and the dinner was served by the mother of nine children, all living.

It has been affirmed that the Bolsheviks, being Jews, atheists and materialists, were persecuting the churches, breaking up church services. But church services are as frequent as ever, church bells are rung as frequently and to westerners, as unnecessarily as formerly, ikons have not been demolished, but are to be seen everywhere, even in factories, often more than one to a building.

Then it was stated that the Bolshevik leaders were living lives of splendor and sumptuousness while the rest of Russia was starving, that Lenin and Trotsky were guarded by Chinese soldiers. But these stories have also been disproved. All the commissars live very modestly, and no Chinese troops have ever been used as guards.

Time and again we were told that the Bolsheviks would offer no honorable terms of peace to any of the powers. But the Bullitt report proves the falsity of this, as do the terms offered Poland, England and China. In this last case Lenin offers to renounce the remainder of the Boxer indemnity and all the commercial, mining and timber concessions exacted by the Tsar's government from China.

These are typical stories given us concerning Russia. All are now definitely disproved. How much more of our knowledge needs revision remains to be seen.<sup>4</sup>

#### THE PROSPECTS

No one can tell what the future has in store for Russia. But it may be desirable to point out several possibilities that can happen. If the Bolsheviks re-

<sup>4</sup>See "New Republic," January 28, 1920, pp. 249-252; "Manchester Guardian," January 16, 1920, p. 42, and October 24, 1919, p. 287; and W. T. Goode, "Bolshevism at Work."

main in power indefinitely and deepen their grasp on Russia, this fact will have a considerable influence on every country in the world. It is apt to bring about some modification of our industrial system, though in every country there are also other influences at work to accomplish this. But Bolshevism is bound to be a world influence, in fact, in many countries it has already exerted a considerable influence.

If the Bolsheviks are ultimately overthrown their place may be taken by the Social Revolutionaries, the party of Kerensky. But then again socialists' ideas, with greater emphasis on peasant conditions, will be put into effect.

Tsarism will hardly be re-established, but it is possible that some form of the old bourgeois state will once more be set up; Russia may have a bourgeois republic with a constitutional government. But then it is almost certain to have some of the imperialist, expansionist ideas of the old régime and will therefore also be a threat to existing institutions. The Paris Conference has all along acted without consulting any Russian government. It has ignored Russia's imperialistically historic interests. Russia has

lost Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, eastern Siberia, all with Allied consent, and often through Allied aid. All these regions, except Siberia, are inhabited by non-Russian peoples.

If there is ever a bourgeois imperialism re-established in Russia, how will this imperialist government view the work of the Paris Conference? While Italy has become master of the Adriatic, while France has expanded in the Rhine country, in the Near East and colonially; while Japan has annexed the Shantung peninsula and occupied eastern Siberia, while England has acquired Mesopotamia, Palestine, the Hedjas, Arabia, Persia, Egypt and most of the colonies of Germany, the imperialist interests of Russia have been ignored. If bourgeois imperialism is ever re-established in Russia the present arrangement of international boundaries will not be accepted calmly in Russia.

A change from Bolshevism may be cheering to students of Russia, but there will also certainly be many distressing incidents in the future, and probably for a long time to come there is apt to be a Russia—cheering and disheartening.

## Why Study Far Eastern History—and How?

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Anyone who looks into a school or college textbook on general history with a view to finding an adequate treatment of the problems of the Far East is apt to be disappointed. From this point of view the most recent college textbook published is distinctly at fault. Some provisions for necessary changes in the present state of affairs are herein submitted for consideration. Among these are improvement of the general texts, just mentioned, in answer to the growing need for information on the Orient, the creation of special texts for college courses to be devoted particularly to this subject, some intended to increase the "average" student's general equipment and others to train teachers competent to pass along this knowledge; in addition, such means as source-books, stereopticon lectures, and collected stories are presented. The entire problem is thought of in relation to the most effective and practical way of securing this desirable educational advance—desirable because it will increase our range of intellectual and human appreciation and because it offers hope of a sane and satisfactory solution of very perplexing practical problems.

The traditional method of instruction has been to regard the Oriental countries as a kind of wilderness into which European nations have hacked their way, much as the American pioneers did into this country. This method is all very well in itself, but not sufficient to meet present requirements, which make it necessary for us to consider our relations with the other half of the world, not merely as a phase of our own experience and as a development of our history, but as a part of the national race life of the peoples of the East, with as nearly their own method of approach as possible and with due attention to their

habits of mind. A few texts now used are partial exceptions to the rule, harbingers, indeed, of better things to come. Two of these are Robinson and Beard's *Development of Modern Europe* and Hayes's *A Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, both of which tend distinctly to reveal the less obvious factors in human life, a tendency indicated by their attention to social, economic, and intellectual development—as well as by their treatment of some of the events in the progress of non-European nations. This is a good beginning, but scarcely enough. It may fairly be argued that a more extensive consideration of the Oriental nations is desirable and that in our more general history courses we may begin to ask not so much for a History of Modern Europe as for a History of the Modern World. Such a work as that by Hayes would, with further amplification, come near to meeting this need. Attention to the earlier background would necessarily be brief, but if that factor should need additional development it would find a place in a book such as Breasted's *Ancient Times*. This text, which is so interestingly written and is so much used in secondary schools, where ancient history is usually studied, might very well give a few pages or even a chapter to each of the Oriental states, in order that young readers of the book might have a fitting preparation for the study of the modern life of those states, later to be taken up in secondary school or in college. Of course, it will be said that already the curriculum is overloaded, that the textbooks are in a similar condition, and that those who care about such matters will find out about them. To this it may be answered that a shifting of cargo, with some dumping overboard, is sometimes necessary, many old emphases

requiring readjustment; and that many textbooks will bear changes, as is indicated by the eagerness with which students have seized upon the more progressive ones already mentioned. Moreover, if students are conscious of what knowledge is necessary and quick to find it, they might well be given an opportunity to exercise their abilities in the fields where the search is comparatively easy (namely, European and American history) and to receive guidance, where any is given, in the less-accessible fields of knowledge. No separate text in the schools or in the beginning college course would be necessary.

That this new information is desirable I have asserted; the recent shifting of interests and our own national concerns bear witness to the same truth. What political and geographical knowledge is most worth having? Surely, in the face of events of the last five years or more, and in consideration of the sudden realization of our own marked provincialism, we need no argument to justify the promotion of the history of the Orient to a position equal to that of Europe. Too long has our zeal been merely to save the souls of the "heathen" for the next world—in this he has been thought to lack those qualifications considered necessary for a "civilised human being." That specialists in Oriental affairs have not written enough to warrant taking the step advocated above may be a fair charge. However, peoples and events seem not to wait for the special researches of scholars. They will be heard, and it is simply the task of the manipulators of knowledge to determine whether they are to be heard by unwilling ears or by those made sympathetic and appreciative by careful study and patient consideration. No matter how inadequate our knowledge may be, there is enough to make a beginning. Hence this plea for a modification of the general texts, both in college and in the secondary school.

This, however, is not the only need meriting attention. As yet there is no well-known history of the Orient as a whole, nor is there an adequate or completely satisfactory text on what is ordinarily called the Far East, for use in the few universities giving courses especially devoted to the subject. The volume by Douglas is hardly likely to win extended approval in such work. Professor Latourette's brace of volumes make a beginning; and we may before very long become indebted to another of the chief writers in this field for a complete and interestingly written pair of books of a more comprehensive kind. It is to be hoped that someone, qualified by age and experience, will produce a work for college classes to include the history of India, Indo-China, China, Japan, Siberia, Australasia and Oceania. The Stanford University courses covering these fields make an admirable unit and do give the Oriental point of view to a remarkable degree. The syllabus sheets for these courses provide a good outline, the only substitute at present for an organized work of the type of Channing, Hart, and Turner's *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*, or Cannon's similar work on English history. Inasmuch as the success of such an outline depends very much on the extent to which it is used in universities and colleges,

it is highly desirable that as fast as possible the number of courses on the Orient be increased—if this is not putting the cart before the horse! In only a few of the universities of the country is any time devoted to this subject, and in some of these it has occupied a distinctly subordinate position.<sup>1</sup> One awaits with interest the recommendations of the Historical Association on this question. There are a number of advantages to be gained in this work. In addition to the instruction offered to the average student, it should be possible to give those who intend to become teachers in high schools a special preparation in the new field, which is necessary if they are to use the newer type of textbook indicated above. Even among those college students who intend to teach there is an amazing amount of "ancestor-prejudice"—directed against Orientals. In case such texts are not forthcoming properly qualified teachers could for a time use the present ones, supplementing them by their own wider knowledge and by assigned collateral reading. Perhaps, after all, the training of teachers is of greater consequence than the texts which they "teach." The various volumes of Robinson and Beard will do as a temporary framework.

In addition to outline texts and training for school teachers, there is needed a source-book, or a set of readings of the familiar type, which will bring together in convenient and accessible form the supplementary readings mentioned, especially for schools and for colleges with small libraries—for in institutions where the libraries are extensive the instructor has more adequate resources to fall back upon. This volume should include selections illustrative of the life and thought of the common people, some of their stories, accounts calculated to give immediacy and vividness to the more important historical events, examples of the different types of literature, translations of expressions of opinion about foreign, i. e., Occidental nations, and information concerning the economic life of the different countries. Pictures should not be forgotten, for with other visual devices they provide a legitimate way of giving help to those students who have a dominantly visual memory. It might be noted here, for instance, that translations of some sections of Japanese primary school texts relating to national history and to ethics would make interesting reading, and would help us to understand the essential ideals of the people. These are only a few possibilities. Whether one volume would suffice is a question. It would be fortunate, indeed, if someone with the ability of a Robinson or a Cheyney would attempt something of this kind.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In *The History Teacher's Magazine* of June, 1916, Professor K. S. Latourette—introducing the gentleman who assumed that in Burmah the people spoke Chinese and then proceeded to ask where Burmah was—calls attention to our ignorance of the Orient and our prejudice toward Orientals. He indicates the bonds which unite us to the Far East, commercial, diplomatic and otherwise, and the scarcity of any attention to the subject in textbooks or in courses of study.

<sup>2</sup> In such a work, suggested outlines of study could be supplied for college and high school classes, for extension pupils, for club and mission study classes—avail what, perhaps, to dissipate the present confusion.

Pictures were mentioned. A more thorough knowledge of geography is requisite—at least, we do not wish Canton to be located in Kamchatka, as the Cantonese might freeze—and it is hard for the writer to believe that moving pictures and slides of a travel and scenic character would not enlist the interest of students. The Centenary Conservation Committee in New York, for example, has prepared various collections. We say that the best way to learn geography is to travel. It would seem reasonable to suppose that for those who have not the privilege of traveling the best substitute available would be in order.

Texts, source-books, illustrations—beside these, in the secondary school, at least, there could well be co-operation between the history and the literature or "English" departments, especially as a means of counter-acting the tendency of the curriculum to become a series of pellets administered at different hours and taken from different boxes. A collection of Eastern stories and historic episodes of the type of Maynard's Classics or the Riverside Series, used in the English classes or, if desired, in the later grades, should heighten the interest in the subject by appealing to a perfectly normal fondness for the mysterious, the romantic and the exotic, supplying a certain adventure in the exploration of the unknown. It may be urged that this is hardly a practical scheme and that, in spite of the growing intimacy of Occident and Orient, boys and girls do not and cannot care about what is so distant and so unfamiliar. The practicability of the scheme is best tested by trial, however; little is being done; and something must be done. Even the failure of a first experiment ought to bring us closer to the final solution of the problem. As far as the interests of secondary school pupils follow those of college students, experiments with the latter may be considered a satisfactory test. In this connection it might be stated that at the University of Oregon High School an experiment is being undertaken which will provide for the allotment of a semester of study to the Orient in a class of students of about thirteen or fourteen years of age; at the Collins Playfield in Seattle one instructor has told Japanese stories to her small charges with remarkable success. The collection suggested need not mean the introduction of a new "subject," but merely the variation of an existing one, and it is believed that children will care greatly for whatever has to do with the fundamental and universal emotions and activities. That Oriental tales are of this character is not to be denied. Separation from our time and place or from the life of our race, if properly handled, need give no trouble. Robin Hood! Aladdin! Does either of these lack interest? Now, it is well known that students of English history who have Robin Hood as a friend find great reality in the life of our English forebears which textbooks chronicle in more prosaic fashion. But Aladdin is none the less attractive—yet his folk were not our kind. Let us go a step farther, then. Akbar and his glories, Hideyoshi—these and others of a like character are worth a trial. Even in the first grades teachers could tell these stories to the children.

This paper has so far attempted to suggest a means of meeting a pressing need (that of attention to the Orient in our more general histories) and to stress the desirability of special university instruction as a means of disseminating information and preparing teachers for schools. The supplementary devices of a source-book, illustrations, and stories have been indicated. At present it seems that we have to work from the universities down through the secondary schools to the primary grades in order to secure the establishment of any new element in the curriculum. It is a case of grafting on the new variety, which in time we hope will become an integral part of the educational tree. We hear much today of a projection downward into the high schools of certain requirements which are to mean a healthy and valuable university curriculum. Here is a case in point. State universities today have a special obligation in this regard. There is no national university to take the lead, and the burden falls on those next in line. Pacific coast universities have an unusual privilege, because of location, economic interests, and social problems, a privilege which they are beginning to appreciate—but at the same time there is a corresponding handicap in the form of a virulent race prejudice. In order that there should be a balanced, judicial frame of mind in the nation generally others should lend a hand. That the State University is a locality where pro-Japanism is unpatriotic, for instance, should train up absolutely unbiased statesmen is hardly to be expected—nay, "state rights" might rather become the accepted doctrine. But in view of the paucity of much-needed training schools for diplomacy, foreign trade, etc., a state university has a distinct duty. Indeed, it is not necessary that a new "school," with its dean and staff be set up, but in the case of diplomacy, at any rate, it is desirable that a definite line of study be announced and that one of the faculty be designated to supervise the work. It is to be hoped that in addition to the state universities the denominational institutions, proclaiming a concern for the unconverted and a desire to advance the cause of Christian generosity and kindness, will feel similar obligations.

If I might be permitted a digression I would assert that this growing interest will be greatly furthered when our universities are more truly cosmopolitan in the composition of their student bodies. May the time soon come when we shall have, by scholarship provision or otherwise, numerous students from various countries in most of the higher institutions, especially in the college period, when the minds of the foreigners and those of the Americans are really susceptible of new impressions and appreciations. It has been found that many of the Orientals who delay coming here until the graduate period have failed to "get into the swing" of our life. From a greater association in work and in play will arise a keen consciousness of the innate worthiness of others and a desire to understand their problems. Business men would do well, from the standpoint of dollars and cents, to see that more of the future builders of Oriental trade should come to us; practical

men in education, religion, and government should be keen enough to perceive corresponding advantages. But our responsibility does not end with a welcome. We often extend the "glad hand" in impulsive American fashion and thoughtlessly urge the visitors "to be like us" and "to adopt our ways." The poor Oriental who does this whole-heartedly and returns to his country eager to play the American meets a most tragic fate when he encounters the adamant conservatism of the family institution. Such tragedies could be numbered by the score and by the hundred. Hospitality is not enough. We need intelligent and cosmopolitan hospitality. This requires

knowledge, for which courses on the Orient can lay a good foundation. And, then, a special adviser for Oriental students who has lived in the East and understands the pathos of the situation would be a valuable member of any university where such students congregate in large numbers. Our own undergraduates would benefit by this association as much as the visitors, and perhaps demand increasingly careful training before going abroad to promote our commercial, diplomatic and other interests. I have called this a digression—perhaps it is the crux of the whole question, the personal co-operation and mutual appreciation that are needed if we are to have a real Commonwealth of Nations.

## The Position of the Greek Slave in Ancient Attica

AN ARRANGEMENT OF MATERIAL FOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

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In studying the history of antiquity, we find that slavery was one of its important institutions. Yet it was not always slavery as we think of it, that is, as it existed in the South prior to sixty-five, for in each ancient country there was a system peculiar to itself. Let us turn to ancient Attica and consider there the position of the average slave.

If we take the fifth century B. C. as the period for our study and look carefully into the conditions of that time, we find that Athens was then the ruling power on the Mediterranean. Her chief strength lay in her navy and her commercial enterprises, and, naturally, just as we would expect, these had tended to build up a great trading post in the home center. In the Piraeus, as well as in Athens, we find during this period a great industrial metropolis similar in many respects to the Italian Venice of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Shops and factories of all kinds were numerous, and skilled labor was much in demand.

It is difficult to estimate the entire population of Attica for this century, but it is believed by many that the slave class alone numbered about 100,000.<sup>1</sup> Of this number, the greater part remained in Athens and the Piraeus, furnishing the cheap labor for the manufactures and industries.

We may wonder where this working army came from, but, if we look closely at the redemption lists, we will discover that the most of it was imported from the shores of the Pontus, Ethiopia, Illyria, Italy and other trading centers to the Piraeus, where it was sold at open market the same as ordinary wares. Another source of supply, which was perhaps even more popular than this, was capture through war. Often the prisoners were Greeks sold

into captivity when their homes were destroyed as in the capture of Plataea in 427 B. C. by the Lacedaemonians, or in the capture of Scione and Torone in 422 B. C. by Athens.<sup>2</sup> Another example of this same thing comes in the Retreat of the Ten Thousand under Xenophon, when many inhabitants along the way were kidnapped or taken prisoners by the Greeks and sold into slavery.<sup>3</sup> This was not unlawfully done, either, for, unless special arrangements were made to the contrary, it was an unwritten law that "to the victor belonged the spoils."<sup>4</sup> Some were native Athenian slaves, born and reared in their master's home, and some were "exposed children," who had been cared for and nourished, with an eye to their future productivity, by foster parents. In the time of Solon, laws were made abolishing slavery for debt, but our common sense tells us that a mere law would not entirely check a well-established custom. In Athens a revision of the lists of citizenship was made every so often and authorities tell us that "whoever was fraudulently inscribed was sold into slavery."<sup>5</sup> Through treachery, free men were often held for slaves, unless a citizen assumed for them the cost of trial.

In money value the slave was much more economical than a free laborer, for he would accomplish the same amount of work on less expense. Following Zaborowski's article, "Ancient Greece and Its Slave Population," we find that the free laborer for a period of 360 days cost his employer about 540 drachmas (\$75), while a slave, who could be forced to live on a much simpler scale, would do the same amount of work at the maximum cost of 180

<sup>1</sup> Gulick—Life of the Ancient Greeks, p. 67.

<sup>2</sup> Gulick—Life of the Ancient Greeks, p. 67.

<sup>3</sup> Zaborowski, S.: Ancient Greece and Its Slave Population (Translated by permission from *Revue Anthropologique*, Paris, Vol. 21, 1911) in the Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for year ending June 30, 1912.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., p. 605.

<sup>5</sup> The total number of slaves of all ages was between 75,000 (Francothe's minimum) and 150,000 (Meyer's maximum). This gives a total population of Attica, free and slave, of maximum 425,000, minimum 310,000. A. Zimmern—The Greek Commonwealth, p. 175.



drachmas (\$26). This left a difference of 860 drachmas, which more than covered the ordinary purchasing price of a strong, able-bodied male worker. Evidently the district had something to do in determining the value of its people, for, quoting again from the same thesis, we find "the prices of the fifth century, as listed on an Attic inscription for 415, to be as follows:

- 1 Carian—115 drachmas (\$15.00)
- 1 Syrian—301 drachmas (\$42.00)
- 8 Thracian women, ranging from 185 drachmas to 222 drachmas (\$18.75-\$31.00).
- Minor slaves, ranging from 158-180 drachmas (\$21.00-\$29.00)."

These are probably the prices for the average untrained lot, for other inscriptions tell us that one skilled in trades was much more valuable. One example is that of a currier who was listed at ten minas, or about \$185-\$155. In *Companion to Greek Studies*, page 420, we find the price for an unskilled mine worker ranged between  $1\frac{1}{2}$  and 2 minas, that is, between £6 and £8. A slave, skilled in some special art, might bring as much as one talent (£240). Sword smiths were worth about £24 and couch-makers about £8. Zimmern (in *The Greek Commonwealth*, page 396, quoting from Hdt. V, 77) says in 415 the average male slave sold for about 166 drachmas and the average female went about 4 drachmas higher.

From vase paintings, inscriptions and writings of the time, we know that slaves were employed in various kinds of ways. Men of wealth usually retained some in their homes to carry on the necessary domestic work of the house. There they would serve as attendants, ladies' maids, housemaids, porters, nurse girls, etc. One or two might be held for outside work, though that was not made a common practice in Athens. The main purpose in keeping slaves appears to have been an economical one—that of promoting industries and trade. We find that practically all of the skilled labor was carried on by slaves and freemen working side by side in the shops, the guilds, and the constructions of the time. Commercialism called for finished products for trade, and it was to the advantage of every Athenian who could to own a shop of his own. It did not follow that he must supervise it in person, for that was not necessary; a trusty slave could probably do it to much better advantage and profit than he. Usually these shops were small, employing below a hundred hands. An inscription at Athens gives the list of workmen for one such establishment as follows:<sup>6</sup>

- 24 Athenians.
- 40 Metèques (foreigners from other cities).
- 17 slaves.

Zaborowski points out that it was to the advantage of the contractor, wanting help for only a short time, to hire slave labor in preference to free workers. Even if he had to pay the full wages of a free man, which was about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  c. per day, he still gained, because he could compel the slave to do as he wished. This shows that if slave help was in demand, it was,

of course, profitable to keep slaves for hire, which gives us a new idea of slavery: that of capital loaned out for interest the same as we loan money. In *Companion to Greek Studies*, page 421, Whibley speaks of slaves hired out in gangs to other capitalists, or to the public. He also states that it was not uncommon to set up a slave in business for himself, providing a certain fixed sum went to the owner.

The worst hardship that could befall a slave was to be sent to the mines. There the work was almost entirely underground, the ventilation was poor, and death was about the only escape. Recent research by experts has proved that some 2,000 shafts, almost perpendicular in construction, and between 80 and 100 miles of narrow winding galleries, were dug by the slaves of antiquity.<sup>7</sup> Probably a great part of this work was done in the fifth century, for that period is recognized by all as the wealthiest age in Greek history. We can get some idea of the profit derived from this enterprise if we remember that from the mines of Laurium alone 1,000 slaves brought in an annual income of (\$115,000) 100 talents. The work in the mines might be conducted by one individual, or it might be carried on by several—each man paying a fixed amount for the privilege of working a certain vein. In either case, the slaves were branded with their master's stamp and worked in chains, linked together for easy supervision. The overseer, who was also a slave, was usually of a higher type than those in his care. In 483 B. C. a new vein was discovered at Maronea and the cry for slave labor increased. No definite statistics for the period can be found, but 52 years later, at the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War, it is estimated that out of the 100,000 slaves in Attica at least one-fifth were employed in the mines.<sup>8</sup>

So far we have spoken only of the slaves held by private ownership. Besides these, there were two other classes: Public slaves, who were in the employ of the state, and the temple slaves. The former, according to Gulick, served in positions which were considered too menial for Athenian citizens. Their work varied. Some were held as Scythian archers, whose duty it was to keep order in the Assembly and in all public places. The same office required some subordinate work for the government. Some held positions of state accountants and secretaries, and some were employed in the mint at Athens. The same class of people performed the services of executioners, torturers and gaolers.

The making and improving of public highways was almost entirely done by public servants. In the Athenian warships slaves were used to a certain extent, and there they were often induced into battle on promise of freedom if victory were won. An example is that of Arginusae (406 B. C.), where many fought and were enfranchised for their services.

The treatment and position of slaves varied according to the work in which they were engaged and the master in whose care fortune might happen to place them. The general opinion seems to be that

<sup>7</sup> Zimmern, Alfred: *The Greek Commonwealth*, p. 398.

<sup>8</sup> Ibid., p. 396-398.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid., p. 398.

in Athens the treatment was not severe. In fact, records look as though the opposite were almost the case. We have evidence to show that the slave talked freely with his companions on the street and passed to and fro almost as he pleased. We know also that they had access to the feasts and celebrations in which the whole state took part. In appearance, too, they were similar to the citizens. They were allowed to enter the temples and to take part in public and private religious rites. Before the law the slave had practically no privileges, for his testimony was only taken under torture. Nevertheless, we know on good authority that a freeman assaulting a slave was liable for damages on the part of the owner, as well as for criminal prosecution; a freeman killing a slave was held subject to manslaughter, though it was not considered murder. It is true that the master could "put them in chains, stocks, condemn them to hardest labor, leave them without food, brand them, punish them with stripes,"<sup>9</sup> and, in fact, inflict almost any punishment except death, but records showing that this was common are not current. However, we have statements to the effect that in cases of gross ill-usage, a slave could flee to the sanctuary and demand another master. Often they were insolent and cunning, ready to intrigue and plot against their owners. Because of this, it was to the benefit of the Athenian slave driver to treat his subjects in a humanitarian way. Athens needed wealth and needed slave labor to get it, but it was impossible to get the wealth unless the slaves were well treated.

As the Old Oligarch says: "When you have a naval power dependent upon wealth, we must perforce be slaves to our slaves, in order that we may get in our slave-rents and let the real slave go free."<sup>10</sup> In some cases, through the pretense of the mercantile plea and the need of the development of industrialism, they were forced to labor in hard surroundings; but on the whole, that is, in the city, "they took an interest in their work and accomplished it through persuasion and not compulsion."<sup>11</sup> Usually they were given some motive for working, such as personal ambition, interest, rivalry or real affection. In many cases the slave was allowed to retain a part of his earnings and in that way purchase his freedom. That seems to have been a common custom, for under the work of Cleisthenes we have a record of several ex-slaves becoming citizens. An example from the next century is that of Pasion, an Athenian banker, who began life as a slave. From the writings of the time we know that the Athenians at least considered their slaves as human beings, worthy of thought and help. Aristotle says: "It is expedient that liberty should always be held out to slaves as a reward for their services," and in his will five out of thirteen received freedom. Xenophon bears the same idea in mind when he writes "slaves need to be filled with good hopes, even more than freeman, in order to

keep them at their posts." In the Aristotelian economics we read that "slaves are willing to take trouble when freedom is the prize and the time is fixed." Again, from the Old Oligarch, we learn that "it is dangerous to intimidate an Athenian slave, because there will be a risk of his giving away his own money to avoid running a risk in person," i. e., he might intrigue his master or demand the right of buying his freedom out of his savings to escape ill-treatment.

The position of the public slaves was much better than that of the private slaves. The hangman, torturers, police, etc., had their own homes provided by the state. They were allowed to possess property and received a small wage, from which they fed and clothed themselves; they could work out in spare time and thereby often acquired a small fortune.

The Athenian police held certain rights over the citizens, which, of course, made them independent and in some ways superior to the common people. The temple slaves would rank in about the same class, for they, too, held positions of trust and honor. On the whole, in private life the public slaves were more or less their own masters, "like our own permanent civil officials."<sup>12</sup>

Their dress, which was provided by their masters, consisted of a short garment without sleeves, called "exomis"; it was made from a material imported from Miletus, and was indistinguishable from that of the artisans and free workmen. The food, which was simple and nutritious, "consisted chiefly of barley, porridge and pulse; sometimes meat was added; the drink was the cheap wine of the country."<sup>13</sup>

Whatever may be said of the good or bad treatment which the slaves received, we know that their social life was not pleasant. Legal marriages were impossible, for a slave possessed no personal rights, and, should a family be founded, it was usually used to the profit of the owner. The children would be considered his property and he was free to dispose of them as he wished. Should one parent be free, it made no difference; the child born of mixed parentage was regarded in the same light as one who was born of pure slaves. However, the records show that in many cases such children were adopted into the families of the owner and later freed by him. An example of this comes out in the case of Pericles, whose son, born of a slave mother, Aspasia, was called for his father, received the rights of legitimacy, and became a full citizen of Athens.

Often a master urged his slave to work for his freedom, and, if we think a little, it is not hard to see the reason for his doing so. The employer who rented his slave derived all the profit, and, if he could encourage him to work extra hard, or perhaps out of hours, it would all be to his gain in the end. When the slave, by dint of hard labor and much saving, had accumulated a large sum, the master might take it in payment for his freedom. But we must not think that the mere handing over of a lump of coin raised a man to the ranks of citizenship and

<sup>9</sup> Blümner—Home Life of Ancient Greeks (Translated by Alice Zimmern), pp. 524-25.

<sup>10</sup> Quoted from A. Zimmern—The Greek Commonwealth, p. 382.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid., p. 388.

<sup>12</sup> Ibid., p. 393.

<sup>13</sup> Blümner—Home Life of the Ancient Greeks (Translated by Alice Zimmern), p. 525.



freed him from all responsibilities, for such was not the case. Nearly always certain restrictions went with freedom, such as the care of the master during his lifetime, the care of the family burying ground, the gift of one or two children, perhaps service for life, or the promise of a certain amount of work to a relative. Another peculiar thing that we notice about these cases of manumission is that the redemption prices are much higher than the market prices. That seems strange when we stop to think that the slave had probably spent the better part of his life in acquiring his little fortune, and now, in his past-prime condition, pays more for his liberty than he was worth to begin with. "Out of 227 redemptions, 162 ranged under 300 and 500 drachmas (\$41-\$69); 5 went to 1,000 drachmas (\$189); 2 were 1,800 drachmas; 1 was 1,800 drachmas; and 2 were 2,000 drachmas (\$278). 812 ransoms for women cost from 300-500 drachmas each."<sup>14</sup>

Another point of interest from a manumission list shows that out of 124 slaves only 24 were native Greeks.<sup>15</sup> The others were as follows:

22 Syrians	8 Cappadocians	2 Egyptians
21 Thracians	2 Phrygians	2 Arabs
8 Galatians	2 Lydians	1 Paphlagonian
6 Galians	2 Mysians	1 Bithryian
4 Armenians	2 Pontians	1 Cyprian
4 Sarmatians	2 Phoenecians	1 Bastarnian
4 Illyrians	2 Jews	

From the sources which have come down to us in various ways, we learn that the Greeks were particular in regard to the names which their slaves carried. Quoting from the *Companion to Greek Studies*, we find that "they were named at the master's pleasure, but usually the names expressed or implied the race, as Geta or Manes; descriptive of personal appearance, as Xanthias or Pyrrhias; names expressing a quality possessed, or thought desirable to possess, as Dromon, Sosias."<sup>16</sup> These were not fixed and could be changed on manumission.

To sum up our discussion in a few words, we conclude that slaves were used in ancient Attica in domestic service, mines, building operations, workshops and public service, and, in some cases, in agricultural work; they did not number at any time over two-fifths of the entire population; and they were not generally ill-treated except in the mines. The idea that the Greek democracy, the art, life and leisure of the Periclean age rested on slavery is false; the slave traffic simply aided Athens to build up her industrial and commercial power by affording her the cheap work necessary for the crafts and the navy.

<sup>14</sup> Zaborowski, S.: *Ancient Greece and Its Slave Population*, p. 606.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 605.

<sup>16</sup> *Companion to Greek Studies*, p. 491.

## The Geographical Content of High School and Elementary History Textbooks

BY SUPERINTENDENT R. H. SNYDER, IDAHO FALLS, IDAHO.

History and geography have always been closely associated as school subjects. Every historical fact has its geographical setting. To understand the historical development of any nation, one must know the geographical features of that nation. A decade or more ago, when correlations were strongly advocated by educators, practical school people found history and geography the two easiest subjects in the curriculum to correlate. The social science courses of today are a combination of history, civics and geography, well correlated. Purely history courses contain a certain amount of geographical material. Just how much geography material is found in our school courses in American history, it is the purpose of this article to point out.

The textbook was taken as the basis for investigation. It may be assumed that the textbook in the hands of the student supplies the student with a large per cent. of the material he is to handle in the course. Lectures, collateral reading, maps and charts are supplementary and secondary in importance. The textbook very largely determines the course and the kind of material supplied by the text is fairly indicative of the content of the course.

During the Summer Quarter of 1919, the writer worked out a study of the content of high school and elementary history textbooks. Textbooks most generally in use at the time were selected, five from each group.<sup>1</sup>

The study was made on the basis of three types of material, subject matter, illustrations and maps. The technique, methods used and the conclusions reached in the study as a whole need not concern us. One type of content only will be discussed—the geographical. Several phases of the subject must be considered. First, what is the general relation of

### HIGH SCHOOL GROUP

- <sup>1</sup> Fite, *History of the United States*, 1915.
- Hart, *New American History*, 1915.
- James and Sanford, *American History*, 1919.
- McLaughlin, *History of the American Nation*, 1913.
- Muzzey, *American History*, 1919.

### ELEMENTARY GROUP

- Bourne and Benton, *History of the United States*, 1913.
- Gordy, *History of the United States*, 1898.
- Mace, *School History of the United States*, 1904.
- McLaughlin and Van Tyne, *A History of the United States*, 1910.
- Thwaites and Kendall, *A History of the United States for Grammar Grades*, 1918.

the amount of geographic material in American history texts to the total body of material? Secondly, what subjects do the maps deal with? All along it must be remembered that a second type of comparison is being made, that of the high school and elementary group in regard to the above topics.

Some general features may be of interest at the outset. In the textbooks examined, 549 maps were found, of which 295 are in the high school and 254 in the elementary group. This is an average of 59 and 50.8 per text for the respective groups. According to size, there are four groups. Maps occupying less than one-half page number 168 in high school texts, and 159 in elementary; one-half to full page, 67 to 81; single page maps, 58 to 56, and only 12 double page maps were found, 8 for high school and 4 for elementary texts.

A point of primary importance is the amount of word space<sup>2</sup> devoted to maps by the two series of texts. This is small, ranging from 5.8 per cent. to 7 per cent. of the total amount of material in the high school group, and from 4.6 per cent. to 7.4 per cent. in the elementary group. The average for the groups is 6.1 and 6.8 per cent. Considering the poor equipment found in the average classroom, it must be admitted that the amount of material for geographical study in connection with American history work in our schools is exceedingly meager.

With what topics does the 6 per cent. of geographic material found in American history textbooks deal? To find an answer to the above question the maps were placed in ten groups. The number of groups was arbitrarily limited to ten and might have been larger, if more detailed analysis had been desired. The name of title of each group, the number and percentage that the maps in each group bear to the total number of maps in the two series is found in the following table. The groups are arranged according to their numerical importance, based on the percentage of the last column in the table.

NAMES OF MAPS AND THE NUMBER OF TIMES OF APPEARANCE  
IN THE SERIES OF TEXTS

Title of Name of Group	High School		Elementary		Total	
	Total Maps	%	Total Maps	%	Total Maps	%
1. Military Events .....	100	34	75	30.8	178	32.4
2. Territorial Development .....	46	15.6	46	18.1	92	16.8
3. Colonization and Settlement .....	39	13.3	48	19	87	16.2
4. Discovery and Exploration .....	32	10.9	28	11	60	10.6
5. Economic and Industrial Development .....	25	8.4	20	8	45	8.2
6. Political Development .....	18	6.1	4	1.6	22	3.9
7. Miscellaneous .....	9	3	11	4.4	20	3.7
8. Population of United States .....	12	4	7	2.8	19	3.4
9. Slavery and Abolition .....	11	3.9	6	2.4	17	3.2
10. Physical and Relief Maps .....	2	.7	5	2	7	1.4
	295	99.9	254	100.1	549	99.8

<sup>2</sup> The amount of space displaced by a word on the printed page.

Maps dealing with military events head the list. Practically one-third of the total number in both series deal with military campaigns and battles. The campaigns of the civil war are necessarily first, with 37 in the high school group and 26 in the elementary group devoted to this period. This is about 6 per cent. The great struggle of the Revolutionary War and its preliminaries is next, with 26 and 25 maps for each series, respectively. Considerable emphasis is placed on the geography of the French and Indian War, while only 7 maps in the high school series and 8 in the elementary series appear as the Spanish-American War. Approximately 95 per cent. of the map material in the military group relate to events that occurred prior to 1870.

Over 16 per cent. of all the maps deal with the territorial development of the United States. There seems to be a noted lack of agreement on the part of textbook writers as to what is important under this heading. On one event only do maps appear in each of the ten texts. That is the Louisiana Purchase. It may be remarked in passing that this map is the only map on any topic that appears in all texts. Three other events are mapped in eight texts—the United States in 1788, Territorial Growth of the United States, this generally from 1789 to 1860, and the Oregon Treaty. Some other important epochs in our history are North America in 1650, Territorial Acquisitions to 1850, Land Claims of the Thirteen States and the Republic of Texas, maps of which appear in five of the texts. A great many maps appear in only one book. Two criticisms may be offered to the list. Writers are not agreed as to what is important. But more serious than this is the absence of a good series of maps in any one of the texts, showing the geographical development of the United States from the beginning to the present time. Lack of space prevents the naming of a random list of maps to prove this point.

Colonization and settlement, and discovery and exploration are two closely related topics and occupy 16.2 per cent. and 10.6 per cent., respectively, of the map space of history textbooks. In each of these topics the elementary percentage is the larger. Maps on relatively unimportant events, as the settlement of Maryland and the settlement of the Carolinas, are found in seven of the ten texts. The New Netherlands in 1655 appear in five. Four texts do not have a comprehensive map of the Virginia Settlements, five only show a map of New England and its surroundings. Early trade routes and the voyages of Columbus appear in six texts each. The voyages of discovery and exploration of Champlain, Marquette and La Salle, English explorations, and a map of Colonial America are other features of importance in this group. It should be finally noted that under Colonization, Settlement, Discovery, and Exploration, all of which took place before 1750, are grouped 27 per cent. of all history maps. Forty-five maps, or 8.2 per cent., deal with economic and industrial development; of which High School texts contain 25, elementary texts 20. The map of the Panama Canal is considered the most important, appearing in seven

texts. Ranking next are Railroads in 1860 and the Cumberland Road, each being included by four writers. Others of note are maps showing the Erie Canal and the Tariff of 1824 and 1828. It is obvious that many important economic and industrial features are slighted or omitted entirely. Only three tariff dates are mentioned, these of 1816 and 1824-1828. No map is found adequately showing the great transcontinental trunk lines. One small map refers to Western irrigation projects. There is no way by which the student can locate the great industrial centers, and from maps available, cotton may grow in Minnesota, and Connecticut may be a great lumber state. There is absolutely no indication of the location of our great natural resources, developed and undeveloped.

The last five groups may be classed as minor in the opinions of the textbook writers. Altogether the five comprise less than 16 per cent. of all the maps. High School texts place more emphasis on political maps than do elementary texts. This caption deals almost entirely with elections. The election of 1896 appears in four texts, those of 1828 and 1876 in three, 1856 and 1912 in two. Such epoch-making elections as those of 1800, 1840 and 1860 find places in only one text in the ten. The election of 1882 and 1884 do not appear at all and only two high school texts have an election map since 1896. One elementary history has a map of the woman suffrage movement and a high school text shows the status of the initiative, referendum and recall.

Miscellaneous items should come last, but are given seventh place because of their percentage rank. Here are grouped all maps not fitting readily in other groups. Only three items appear in more than one text, they are Lewis and Clark's Expedition, which is found in five; The Northwest after Wayne's Victory, and the Cross Roads of the Pacific in two. Nineteen maps show the population of the United States at different dates from 1790 to 1910. The most important times seem to be 1790, 1880, 1880 and 1910; 1860 appears only in one high school text. A valuable type of map is the one showing the movement of the centers of population. Five historians found it valuable enough to put such a map in their texts. More than 8 per cent. of our history maps deal with slavery and abolition. This would seem to be a fair allotment to such an important issue as the slavery question.

One is struck by the small number of physical or relief maps. Only seven appear, not one to a text on the average. Two high school histories have a physical map each. One elementary has two maps and another has three. Every one of these deals with the colonial period. There is nothing that reaches farther down than 1700.

The study shows that the percentage of geographical material found in our school history texts is far too small; and that there should be a more adequate treatment of this phase of our subject. A great deal of our history work is hazy to students because it is not fixed in time or place. It is the writer's opinion that the amount of word space devoted to maps in

school histories should be doubled. History texts should contain 100 per cent. more geographical material than they now do.

A second and more important criticism is the kind of subjects that history maps deal with. There is evidence of a great deal of misplaced emphasis. In the first place, 82.4 per cent. of the maps are military in their nature. This is entirely wrong. The results of wars are of first importance, not the wars themselves. Should the student spend time on the location of battlefields and lines of march? Such maps are of interest only to the military strategist. While the military maps are numerous—two kinds of maps occupy a minor place. They are physical maps and maps showing economic and industrial development. Johnson<sup>3</sup> in his *Teaching of History* states the situation and suggests the remedy in regard to relief maps, when he says that "The usual plan is to describe the physical features of a country and to state in general terms their historical significance by the way of introduction to the history of a country and then develop the history without further reference to them: This falls far short of meeting the needs of the situation. Physical features should be brought in to explain specific conditions and events. They should be woven into the body of the narrative and not relegated to a mere introduction. There should be not one physical map, but special detailed physical maps setting forth the physical features to be realized in dealing with particular situations as they arise in the course of the narrative." Our investigation shows that six histories contain no physical maps at all, and those in the other four are of little practical value. With the modern emphasis on economic and industrial development, it is difficult to understand the author's viewpoint, who draws the pupil's attention to so few geographical facts in this great field. And it must be noted no reference at all is made by maps to religious and educational development.

The time element in the selection of maps is another serious mistake. Ninety-five per cent. of all military maps are prior to 1870. Most of the maps on territorial development are dated before the Civil War, 27 per cent. of the maps on discovery, exploration, colonization and settlement come before 1750. It may be that this type of map is easier to draw. I do not think it is, but even so, should the value of the topic not be the first consideration? Our history maps are not up to date—not more than twenty maps in a total of nearly six hundred relate to subjects of the twentieth century and this century is one-fifth of it gone.

Would it not be wise for writers of school histories to take these things into consideration? Is it not possible for us to have more historical geography to put before the pupils? And this material should be of the right kind. It should deal with vital topics of industrial, economic and social value, not of battles and campaigns. And, finally, it must be modern and treat of subjects of present-day interest and not with century-old topics, as interesting as they may be.

<sup>3</sup>Pp., 253-254.

# Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

PART I. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT, BY CHAIRMAN JOSEPH SCHAFER.

## INTRODUCTORY

The American Historical Association, since its organization, has properly assumed, with other educational agencies, a share of the responsibility for directing the history work of the elementary and high schools. This direction has been exerted in a variety of ways, both direct and indirect. But probably the most generally effective influence is that which has been exerted, from time to time, through reports of committees dealing with the subject of history in the schools. There have been four such committees prior to the present Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools, if we count the history conference of the Committee of Ten as the first. The Committee of Ten on History was appointed by the National Educational Association, not by the Historical Association. But President Charles Kendall Adams, who was chairman of the section, Doctor Woodrow Wilson of Princeton, and other members were prominent in the councils of the Historical Association, so that the Association would be justified in claiming that committee together with the later committees which were formally appointed by the Association itself.

The report of the Committee of Ten on History, Civil Government and Political Economy, to accord it the full title, was published in 1898. Its principal recommendations were the following:

(a) History should begin with the fifth grade in the form of "biography and mythology," which subject should likewise be continued through the sixth year.

(b) In the seventh year, pupils should be taught "American history; and the elements of civil government."

(c) In the eighth year, they should have "Greek and Roman history with their Oriental connections."

(d) For the ninth year—first year of high school—the committee proposed "French history. (To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of medieval and modern history.)"

(e) In the tenth year, "English history. (To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of medieval and modern history.)"

(f) In the eleventh year, "American history."

(g) And in the twelfth year, "A special period, studied in an intensive manner; and civil government."

In addition to outlining the above eight-year course in history as a comparatively ideal program, the committee also suggested a six-year course of which three years would be taken in the elementary school and three years in the high school. This program gave up the eighth school year to American history and civics, placed Greek and Roman history, with their Oriental connections, in the ninth year—first year of

high school,—and eliminating the year of French history and the year devoted to the intensive study of some brief period, left the English history course to the tenth grade and the American to the eleventh, as in the preceding. It goes without saying that very few schools adopted the committee's eight-year course, while the minimum six-year course tended to be the ideal toward which schools generally tended.

But the "biography and mythology" were perforce unorganized subjects, capable of being effectively presented only in rare instances by exceptionally well-trained teachers. The upshot was, that in a vast majority of cases, pupils left the elementary school with but one year of history—American history, with civil government. They learned nothing about the great stream of history rising in the far distant past and flowing on, with recurring augmentation, obstructions, diversions and gradual enlargements toward the future. They learned nothing about the life which lay immediately back of the history of America. Our forbears simply stepped out of the dark, took ship, landed on our blissful shores, smote the natives hip and thigh, possessed the land, and were ready to indulge those grievances whose inevitable culmination was the American Revolution and a foredoomed independence. Those pupils who went on into the high school sometimes took their year of Greek and Roman history, but often had difficulty in freeing it from "its Oriental connections." More often they took a year's course covering general history in the ninth year, omitted history in the tenth, or in the tenth and eleventh, and devoted the eleventh or the twelfth year to American history and government.

It is not hard to see what the Committee of Ten longed to secure. They discovered that it was then the custom to give one year of history in the grammar school and two in the high school. They hoped to double the time of exposure to history and to impart to the subject, as presented to pupils, some measure of unity and consecutiveness. While their attempt on the whole suffered shipwreck, yet the report of this committee, with its well-reasoned presentation of the claims of social studies, prepared the way for a fuller recognition of those studies in the school curriculum and particularly in the high school.

In 1896 the American Historical Association appointed a Committee of Seven "to consider the subject of history in the secondary schools and to draw up a scheme of college entrance requirements in history." The committee was composed of Andrew C. McLaughlin, chairman; Herbert B. Adams, George L. Fox, Albert Bushnell Hart, Charles H. Haskins, Lucy M. Salmon and H. Morse Stephens. During the next three years the committee gathered informa-

tion about existing history programs, conferred widely with organized bodies of teachers, and sought the suggestions of individuals both in this country and in Europe. Then, in 1899, they published their report.

This document, which occupies pages 429-564 in the printed report of the American Historical Association (1898), constitutes the most comprehensive and thorough-going treatment of the subject of history in the secondary schools published in America up to that time. It discusses the systems in vogue among foreign nations, as these were studied by members of the committee, and decided against the policy of importing a foreign-made régime into American schools. Some features of the French system and the German system receive favorable comment, but there is trenchant criticism of other features. A significant section of the report treats of the "Value of Historical Studies." Another section is entitled "Continuity of Historical Study and the Relation of History to Other Subjects." This contains a statement of the case which is so felicitous that we are tempted to quote it here: "History has a central position among the subjects of the curriculum. Like literature, it deals with man, and appeals to the sympathy, the imagination and the emotional nature of the pupils. Like natural science, it employs methods of careful and unprejudiced investigation. It belongs to the humanities, for its essential purpose is to disclose human life; but it also searches for data, groups them and builds generalizations from them. Though it may not be a science in itself, its methods are similar to scientific methods, and are valuable in inculcating in the pupil a regard for accuracy and a reverence for truth. It corrects the formalistic bias of language by bringing the pupil into sympathetic contact with actualities and with the mind of man as it has reacted upon its environment. It gives breadth, outlook and human interest, which are not easily developed by the study of natural phenomena. Thus, as a theoretical proposition, at least, the assertion that the story of the life and onward movement of men, not their language or their physical environment, should form the center of a liberal course, would seem to leave little ground for argument" (pp. 445-446).

#### THE FOUR BLOCKS

The committee recommended a course of study for the high school years which should include the well-known four blocks, or periods, of history, as follows:

- (1) Ancient history, with special reference to Greece and Rome, but with some introductory work on the more ancient nations and embracing also the early part of the Middle Ages, to 800, or 814, or 843.
- (2) Medieval and modern European history from the close of the first period to the present time.
- (3) English history.
- (4) American history and civil government.

The committee made it clear that, in their estimation, anything less than four years' work along the indicated lines would be inadequate, and they discussed in detail their objections to the short course in general history which was still so popular in the

schools. There are helpful suggestions about methods of treating each of the several blocks of history recommended; also, discussions of general methodology under the rubrics "sources" and "intensive study." The need of trained teachers is pointed out and an account given of what constitutes adequate training for history teaching. The college entrance discussion, and other features of the report, while valuable, do not concern us so directly.

It may be said, without qualification, that the report of the Committee of Seven marks a distinct epoch in the history of history teaching in American high schools. From the date of that report history has become a much more important factor in the curriculum, and the tendency has been, increasingly, to treat it with something of the seriousness and respect long accorded other subjects, like mathematics and the classics. More attention has been paid to the training of teachers of history and civics, and the amount of history generally required in deference to the committee's recommendations led many young men and women to specialize along that line for the purpose of teaching it exclusively. The history "blocks" almost everywhere supplanted the course in "general history."

These gains were substantial. Yet, some complaints arose which, in the course of seven or eight years, produced a cumulative effect sufficient to cause the appointment of another committee to make a new study of conditions in the schools, to reconsider the recommendations of the Committee of Seven, and suggest such interpretations and modifications as in the circumstances might seem wise.

Professor A. C. McLaughlin again was chairman of the committee; Professor C. H. Haskins of the former committee was a member; James Harvey Robinson, James Sullivan and Charles W. Mann completed the personnel. The committee was appointed by the American Historical Association in 1907 and made its report about two years later.<sup>1</sup>

One of the complaints with which the committee dealt touched the last year's work. Many teachers felt that civil government was so important a subject that it ought to have an independent status which, as a feature of the course in American history and government, it did not possess. The decision was to recommend that two-fifths of the time in that year be devoted to government, three-fifths to history. They dealt also with the oft-heard complaint that under the four-block system too little time could be had for modern history. The second year was accorded to medieval and modern, and experience showed that fully one-half—usually more—of that time went to medieval while, more and more, the conviction was growing that later historical movements, which play directly and definitely into the life of today, are important enough to deserve adequate time for their careful presentation. To meet this situation the committee recommended two plans:

- (1) A change in emphasis which would make the work on the medieval part of the second year some-

<sup>1</sup> The report is printed in *Report of American Historical Association*, 1910, pp. 209-242.

what less intensive and the modern work correspondingly more intensive.

(2) A new schedule of courses designed to eliminate medieval history as such, to place English history in the second year, with considerable emphasis on its continental connections, modern European history in the third, and American history and civil government in the fourth.

It can hardly be affirmed that these recommendations cleared the air, and it gradually appeared that no mere modifications of the former committee's program would be accepted as a solution either of the problem of civics or of the problem of modern history. The current of public opinion was running too strongly in favor of a substantial strengthening of both of those subjects. And, besides, questions arose with increasing frequency as to the wisdom of devoting the ninth school year in all cases to ancient history, and the justice of assigning a year to the study of England when the same time given to medieval Europe would preserve the continuity of the course and bring England into a proper relation to world history. In a word, the concessions announced by the Committee of Five (which was looked upon as representing the Committee of Seven), did not satisfy the demands of the schools or the people; but they did serve to undermine the authority which the former committee's recommendations had acquired. As a result, the high school course in history and social science entered upon a period of experiment and almost of anarchy.

#### HISTORY IN THE GRADES

Meantime, the American Historical Association was not unmindful of its duty toward history in the earlier grades. In 1905 the Association appointed the Committee of Eight to consider the problems of elementary school history and to make a report. The personnel of the committee was as follows: Professor James Alton James, chairman; Professor Henry E. Bourne, Eugene C. Brooks, Wilbur F. Gordy, Mabel Hill, Julius Sachs, Henry W. Thurston and J. H. Van Sickle. Their report is dated 1909. It builds upon the work of the Committee of Ten, the special suggestions by Professor Salmon of the Committee of Seven (printed in the appendix to their report), and the results of an investigation into the actual condition of history in the schools. Their conclusions may be summarized as follows:

(1) Something in the line of history should appear in each of the grades.

(2) In grades one and two this should center in Indian life, with full use also of the interest in holidays and in local events of importance.

(3) Grade three would have "pictures of historical scenes and persons in different ages."

(4) Grade four, historical scenes and persons in American history.

(5) Grade five, historical scenes and personages in American history.

#### SIXTH, SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

In the committee's plan, a very complete break occurs between the work of the first five grades and

that of grade six. Perhaps it would be more just to say that the work of the eight grades is arranged in the form of two cycles, dividing at the end of the fifth year. In the first cycle the aim is, after leading the child far afield in the world, to bring him back to America and encourage him to traverse biographically the course of our national history. In the second, it is to present, in both a more intensive and a more orderly fashion, the European background of American history in grade six, to be followed by a fairly systematic account of American history in grades seven and eight. The thought is, that, whereas American school pupils in the past have too often looked upon American history as representing not merely the apex but the sum of human achievement, with the new perspective here introduced they will learn that American history is itself the result of a long development, most of which took place in other lands in other times.

Like the report of the Committee of Seven on high school history, this report opens a new era in the history work of the lower schools. Its recommendations have been adopted, either in whole or with modifications, into practically all of the city school systems of the country, while the rural school courses of study also show its influence to a marked extent. It has demonstrated that, contrary to the views of the Committee of Ten, back in 1892, "biography and mythology" can be apprehended, and studied with profit, by pupils a long way below the fifth grade. It has revealed a hitherto unappreciated wealth of teaching material, of a fundamental character, in the life of the American Indian, who was everywhere in our land. Also, it has bound up the work of the school more closely with community life by emphasizing the various holidays, special occasions and noted events of local import. Finally, to the discomfiture of many prophets of disaster, it has demonstrated that even sixth-grade pupils can study, with deep interest, the main events and personages of the "European background," if the subject matter is skillfully presented.

The chief criticisms which have arisen are the following:

(a) Statistics show that almost sixty per cent. of all children entering the schools drop out by the end of the sixth grade, and in that year the mortality is especially high. Therefore, it would be desirable to let all pupils complete a somewhat more definite course in American history, with civics, at that time.

(b) The suggested work with Indians and with holidays, while valuable, might perhaps be more concentrated, thus leaving time for other things of equal importance. A similar criticism is often heard as respects the story features of grades three to five, inclusive. It is all very interesting, all valuable. But why call it history rather than reading? Is it not, in fact, more proper to regard most of that work as supplementary reading? As such, should not most of the actual ground be covered by the pupils in non-school time, but with such encouragement as could well be afforded by the devotion to it of a portion of the school time it now absorbs? The school time thus

saved might well be given to history and civics work of a more rigorous if not less interesting sort; perhaps something analogous in disciplinary character to existing schedules in formal reading or in arithmetic.

In other words, there is an opinion, which has gained considerable headway in recent years, that "biography and mythology," to use the language of the Committee of Ten, are not necessarily history at all; that children need, as a preparation for life, the training which real history, thoroughgoing in its method from the outset, but graded in its content to suit the age of pupils can so well supply, and that the history discipline should be entered upon as early as possible—even as early as the first or second school year. The views of this advanced group go as far beyond the report of the Committee of Eight in the estimate of the capabilities of pupils and of teachers as that committee's ideas transcended those of the Committee of Ten. Instead of teaching things only distantly related to history in the hope that, after a while, the child's mind will use these as a bridge on which to cross over to history (so these men argue), why not start the child in history soon after he enters school and keep him at it?

#### THE NEW COMMITTEE OF EIGHT

The Great War emphasized, perhaps even exaggerated, the criticisms formerly leveled against the current school programs. There now began to be heard a clamorous demand for recent world history and an equally insistent demand that adequate provision be made for civics or social science. The need of some definite training in American history and in civil government before the close of the sixth grade, where so many children drop out of school, was pressed home also, while new ideals of rigor in training, of time, economy and practicality in instruction gained easy acceptance.

It was under these circumstances that, acting on a request from the National Education Association, the National Board for Historical Service (an organ of the American Historical Association), in October, 1918, appointed a committee to consider the entire series of problems connected with the teaching of history in the schools, both primary and secondary. Its chairman was Doctor Samuel G. Harding and the other members Daniel C. Knowlton, Frank S. Bogardus, William C. Bagley and Julian A. C. Chandler. At their meeting in January, 1919, the Council of the American Historical Association adopted the above committee as its own, but added three members—A. C. McLaughlin, Guy Stanton Ford and Joseph Schafer.

The first committee, at a meeting in Washington in November, 1918, agreed generally upon the scope of the inquiry to be undertaken and adopted certain rules of procedure. At a meeting of the enlarged committee in Chicago, February 28, 1919, Chairman Harding asked to be relieved of the duties of chairman, whereupon Mr. Schafer was chosen chairman. Mr. Knowlton was elected secretary, and the chairman and secretary devoted several months to the

preparation of tentative programs which were considered by the plenary committee at its meeting in Washington, May 30 and 31, 1919.

#### AIMS IN TEACHING HISTORY

At the Chicago meeting the committee adopted a statement of aims in history teaching which reads as follows:

1. The supreme aim in the teaching of history and social science is to give positive direction to the growth of those mental and moral qualities of children which, rightly developed, constitute the basis of the highest type of citizenship.

2. We gladly acknowledge that all sound training, through whatever feature of the school curriculum, contributes helpfully to this desired end; but we are nevertheless convinced that the historical training affects the result most directly.

3. Historical training (a) frees the mind from the trammels of time and place, substituting the idea of social development and change for the instinctive notion of a static social world, performing in this respect a service in education analogous to that performed by biology for organic nature or by geology for inorganic nature. (b) It tends to produce open-mindedness, which mitigates native prejudice and permits truth to gain recognition. (c) It induces patient inquiry for the purpose of disclosing the facts of a given situation before passing judgment. (d) It gives some grasp upon the methods of investigation and the tests of accuracy. (e) It develops that form of judgment which deals with the shifting and conditional relations of men in society, supplementing the scientific judgment which arises from the study of animate and inanimate nature and of mathematics. (f) It yields, or should yield, the high moral and ethical concepts of loyalty to principles and to institutions by revealing the cost at which the elements of civilization have been secured for us.

#### THE WASHINGTON CONFERENCE

At the Washington conference the committee adopted resolutions favoring the promulgation of a course of study covering the entire school period below the college, the course being subdivided for grades 1-6; grades 7-9; grades 10-12; and subdivided again for the upper four grades.

#### THE SUGGESTED COURSE OF STUDY

##### THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL—GRADES 1-6

The course begins in the community and ends in the community, and draws at every stage upon the pupils experience in the community. It embraces two units or cycles:

- I. The making of the community. From a simple study of changes now visibly in progress the pupil is led back to the days of Indian occupation. He learns what Indians were like, how they lived, and some of the stories which they told about themselves; how the white men came, how they lived in pioneer days, and some of the great changes since. The story at no point leaves the community. This work is designed for the second grade.

- II. The making of the United States. A few facts of primary significance in the development of



the United States are selected and so arranged as to form a simple but connected story. At the end provision is made for a study of how we are governed today. This work is designed to begin in the third grade and to continue through the sixth grade, as follows:

Third grade: How Europeans found our continent and what they did with it. Some fundamental problems of discovery, exploration and settlement are here illustrated.

Fourth grade: How Englishmen became Americans, 1607-1788.

Fifth grade: The United States, 1788-1877.

Sixth grade: The United States since 1877 (half year). How we are governed today (half year).

For schools that may wish to begin history later than the second grade a rearrangement of this cycle is recommended. The special syllabus for these grades, which is to accompany the final report, will develop the methodology of the subject. Detailed provision will also be made for adequate civic and moral instruction in each grade.

#### THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—GRADES 7-9

III. American History in its world setting. This will constitute a third unit, or cycle, designed to form a logical and psychological development of the work given in the elementary grades. A few facts of primary significance in the development of human civilization are selected and so arranged as to form a simple but connected story. Our own country is here treated as a part of the world whole, but with special emphasis upon our own contributions and problems. This work is designed for the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, and is divided as follows:

Seventh grade: The world before 1607, and the beginnings of American history, including the building of the Spanish Empire in the New World, the basis of the present group of Latin-American Republics.

Eighth grade: The world since 1607 viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States. Treatment is to take account of civic problems, but to emphasize specially the economic and social features of our history up to recent times.

Ninth grade: Community and national activities. This course combines recent economic and social history with commercial geography and civics.

For those pupils of the ninth grade who expect to complete the senior high school, the committee recommends as an alternative to the above a course in the progress of civilization from earliest times to about 1650.

#### SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL—GRADES 10-12

##### *The Modern World.*

IV. This fourth unit, or cycle, for pupils who are about to function as active citizens on a rather high plane of political and social intelligence will consist of the following year courses:

Tenth grade: Progress toward world democracy, 1650 to the present. This will be a study mainly of European history, but with some attention also to the rest of the non-American world.

The emphasis will be upon political movements and political reorganizations. But the explanations of these will be sought in economic changes, in inventions, discoveries and social regroupings, as well as in the leadership of great personages and the influence of critical or constructive ideas.

Eleventh grade: The above course will form the background for a study, in the same spirit, of United States history during the national period, with emphasis on a list of topics to be selected for special treatment, and with critical comparisons with institutions and with tendencies in other countries.

Twelfth grade: Social, economic and political principles and problems.

In its report of progress following the Washington conference,<sup>2</sup> the committee promised a syllabus on the work of the first six grades, to be prepared by Professor Henry Johnson, whose ideas on the elementary work were adopted; also a syllabus on the junior high school course and a special syllabus on each of the proposed senior high school courses. The committee hoped either to secure the co-operation of sociologists, economists and political scientists in preparing a syllabus for the twelfth grade course, or to be able to embody in its report a course prepared independently by these groups and designed to constitute the cap-stone course in social science in the high school.

#### CONFERENCES WITH TEACHERS

One of the committee's policies, which was in harmony also with the policies of preceding committees, was to employ all available opportunities for conference with history teachers and other teachers and supervisors in different sections of the country. During the year 1919 a considerable number of such conferences were held, greatly to the committee's advantage, in connection with meetings of history teachers as such, the National Educational Association, and perhaps a score of summer schools for teachers scattered from the Atlantic coast to the Pacific. And, at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association at Cleveland in December, 1919, a special conference on the committee's work made a distinct and extremely popular feature of the program.

Following that conference, the committee adopted decisions which, for practical reasons, would defer the preparation of courses for the elementary grades, while pushing forward as fast as possible the preparation of syllabi for the ninth, tenth, eleventh and (should proper co-operation make that possible) the twelfth grade. The material for those grades, it was agreed, should be published as Part I of the final report.

There were two reasons for this last decision. First, Professor Henry Johnson, on whom the committee necessarily relied to prepare the syllabi for grades 1-6, and grades 7 and 8, was ill in California, which made the time of delivery of those syllabi a matter of doubt. Second, if the report was to be published under the authority of the American Historical Association, greater unity of sentiment must

<sup>2</sup> See THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, X, 349-351, June, 1919.

first be achieved with respect to the character of the elementary school courses. It being hoped that the high school courses might go to press in a few months, it was not anticipated that another opportunity of testing the sentiment of the Association would offer before these should be printed.

At Cleveland the committee also recommended that work in civics, as outlined by the National Education Association Committee on Social Studies, be incorporated with its future course for the elementary grades. The definite recommendations for the high school years were as follows:

#### MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS

1. That these should include, as a minimum requirement for graduation on the part of all pupils taking a four-year course:

(a) A course in modern world history (except America), beginning approximately at the middle of the seventeenth century and extending to the present.

(b) A course in American history, treated topically, covering mainly the period from 1789 to the present, with special emphasis on the period since the Civil War.

This course should be primarily political, but it should take full account of economic, industrial and social factors which explain political movements.

#### ALLOCATION IN GRADES

2. That the above courses should be given, preferably, in grades ten and eleven, respectively.

#### OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES

3. In addition to this minimum requirement the committee recommends, as additional required courses, where practicable:

(a) For the ninth grade a course in industrial organization and civics which shall include "the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work, of the social value and interdependence of all occupations, of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life, of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community, of how government aids the citizen in his vocational life and of how the young citizen may prepare himself for a definite occupation." In this connection, we suggest the study of ten great industries, as follows: The fisheries and fur trade; lumbering; meat, hides and wool; wheat; corn; cotton; iron and steel; coal; gold, silver and copper; and oil.

(b) For the twelfth grade a course in the problems of American democracy. This should include some of the basic principles of economics, political science and sociology, stated in elementary terms, but should consist mainly of the study of concrete present-day problems illustrating these principles.

The committee hoped to secure the co-operation of organizations of economists, political scientists and sociologists in preparing syllabi for the above courses.

#### ELECTIVES IN HISTORY

4. It is by no means the intention of the committee to suggest a reduction in the time usually allotted to history in the high school program. It is rather the intention, while retaining in full force and effect

the list of history offerings in the high school, to increase the positive requirements in social studies for graduation as a guarantee of citizenship training. In addition, therefore, to the above required courses, the committee recommends the offering in the future as in the past of a variety of elective courses in history and the other social studies. It is not necessary that elective history courses should be taken in strictly chronological order. Following are the courses suggested:

(a) The ancient world to about 800 A. D. This course should be so placed in the program as not to interfere with the required courses outlined above.

(b) A survey of ancient and medieval history to approximately the middle of the seventeenth century. If convenient, this should be taken before the required course in modern world history of the tenth grade.

(c) The history of England and the British Empire.

(d) A course involving an intensive study of local, state or regional history, or of some particular period or movement in the history of the Americas.

(e) A similar course involving an intensive study of some particular period or movement in European history. This might well take the form of the study of the background and history of the Great War.

(f) An intensive study of the recent history of the Far East.

#### SYLLABI

5. For the proposed required courses the committee agreed to prepare syllabi containing lists of topics, references for the use of the teacher, and reading lists for the pupils. No such syllabi were contemplated for the suggested elective courses, the committee agreeing however to facilitate as far as possible the publication and use of syllabi already in existence, covering such courses.

#### OTHER SYLLABI PREPARED

In addition to the courses for the ninth grade and the eleventh grade, the committee at the date of its Washington meeting had before it Mr. Knowlton's syllabus for the tenth grade. And, quite as important, it received assurances that Mr. Johnson's syllabus for the first six grades was ready for publication, also a suggested outline by him of the work for the seventh and eighth grades.

No definite course was in hand or in sight for the twelfth grade work. But the committee received advices which indicate that several persons are engaged in preparing such a course, and it seemed not unlikely that definite information would be available in time to permit publication in connection with the second installment of this report, April, 1921.

#### LEAVE TO PRINT

The committee asked the Council of the American Historical Association for its discharge, which was granted, but with leave to print informally such reports as the members might see fit to prepare for the press. The secretary was instructed by the committee to assemble the material, make the needed editorial adjustments and place it in the hands of the McKinley Publishing Company, who generously offered to devote the March and April issues of *The*

HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, if so much space is necessary, to the production of the report.

#### WHAT HAS BEEN ACHIEVED

The committee is under no delusions as to how its report will be received. We know that not all who are interested in the reform of the social studies will be satisfied with its recommendations. In fact, we would be surprised if more than a good working minority shall favor all of them. Fortunately, in a case like this, it is not necessary to wait till a majority has given its adherence to a plan before putting it before the people. For this report is not issued by authority; its recommendations are in no sense compulsory; and it can have only such influence as the inherent soundness of its conclusions, when examined and tested by experience, shall win for it. One may be permitted to doubt if, in the advanced state which city school organizations have attained—with their varied aims and multitudinous courses—any one single report, however meritorious, can again acquire the influence exerted by the report of the Committee of Seven on Secondary School History, or that of the Committee of Eight on History in the Elementary Grades. We will be gratified if, at the end of a decade, our work shall be appraised as helpful by way of suggestion and stimulation.

JOSEPH SCHAFER.

#### NOTE TO REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HISTORY AND TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

I wish to dissent from the recommendations of the Committee concerning the courses for grades 1 to 6. I do not believe that we should depart so widely from the program outlined by the Committee of Eight, which on the whole seems to have worked pretty well. The chief defect of that program, in my opinion, is that it devotes more time than is necessary to the story survey of American history (4th and 5th grades), and crowds too much into the 6th year. I would condense the American story survey into one year (the 5th), devoting the 4th year to Greek and Roman mythology and stories of ancient history. The 6th year could then begin with the Middle Ages and give a more effective survey of the European background, coming down in an elementary way to the close of the World War. In view of the number of pupils who leave school by the end of this year, I think it highly desirable that this year of European history should be strengthened.

The course sketched by Professor Johnson is an admirable one where schools, pupils and teachers are prepared for it, but I do not believe that it is now practicable for the majority of our schools. I also doubt the wisdom of tying up the recommendations of the committee exclusively to the 6-3-3 plan and ignoring the 8-4 grouping of grades. My understanding of the Committee's action at Washington was that the Johnson plan was heartily approved where schools are ready for it, but that this was to be considered merely as one of several alternatives.

SAMUEL B. HARDING.

## Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

### PART II. HISTORY IN THE GRADES, BY PROFESSOR HENRY JOHNSON.

This is a stenographic report of Professor Johnson's extemporaneous address at Washington, December 29, 1930; but the author has freely exercised the privilege of revising it; omitting some parts, condensing or expanding others.

Those who have analyzed recent discussions of what we are acquiring the habit of calling the "social studies" will, I think, agree that in the place assigned to history there is a vast confusion of conflicting theories that shade into each other by almost imperceptible degrees. In a general way it is, however, possible to distinguish three main lines of procedure.

One of these lines follows contentions which, if really interpreted, can mean only that there should be no systematic study of history in the schools. What is here proposed is to use the past as occasion may arise to illuminate current events, to impress festivals, ceremonies, and holidays, to enforce moral or civic ideas, and in general to stimulate love and reverence for existing institutions without regard to any of the essential conditions imposed by history as a special branch of learning. This is merely to begin again doing what the educational world began to stop doing in the seventeenth century. It is reversion

to a practice established ages before Herodotus was born and continued for two thousand years after Herodotus. It has behind it, therefore, more human experience than any other plan ever proposed for using the past in education.

The procedure is approximated in various attempts now in progress to cross at will subject boundaries, to take what is wanted just when and just where it is wanted, to follow any present need, any project, any problem whithersoever it may lead, to geography or civics or economics or sociology or ethics or nature study or hygiene or literature or history, perhaps to enter all of these fields in a single lesson. In such adventures history suffers no more than other social subjects, except that the adventures are sometimes described as "courses in history."

A second main line of procedure, and the one adopted by most of our present reformers, admits history to the dignity of a separate school study, but

*with the promise that it shall be history controlled by present interests and problems.* The principle may express itself in the general question: What history should be studied by boys and girls living in the United States in 1920? and return the general answer that boys and girls living in the United States in 1920 should study only the history of such matters as are of prime importance in the United States in 1920. It may raise the more specific question: What history should be studied by boys and girls living in the State of New York in 1920? and return the answer that boys and girls living in the State of New York in 1920 should study only the history of such matters as are of prime importance in the State of New York in 1920. It may raise the still more specific question: What history should be studied by boys and girls living on the Island of Manhattan in 1920? and return the answer that boys and girls living on the Island of Manhattan in 1920 should study only the history of such matters as are of prime importance on the Island of Manhattan in 1920. It may even raise the question: What history should be studied by boys and girls in attendance at Public School No. 43 on the Island of Manhattan in December, 1920? and return the answer that such boys and girls should study only the history of matters of prime importance to boys and girls in attendance at Public School No. 43 on the Island of Manhattan in December, 1920.

All of these ways of applying the principle have found recent illustration in the work of re-shaping history for schools, and there are hints of one further possibility. What history should be studied by John whose crowning ambition this morning is perhaps to be President of the United States? by Clarence whose chief interest is in automobiles? by Charles who is already specializing in the stock market? by Lillian who has just decided upon an operatic career? by Patricia who is cultivating the manners of a duchess? and by Susan who has a way of inspiring boy poets to search the dictionary for words that rhyme with Susan? Let those who have forgotten their school days deny that such interests and problems may be very present and quite serious.

History controlled by present interests and problems is not quite so venerable as that purely casual and incidental use of the past which prevailed in the schools before the seventeenth century. But it is old enough to be eminently respectable. It was the kind of history written by the father of history himself, and it remained the kind of history written by most historians until about 1850. So consistently, indeed, was the principle applied that history came to be looked upon as one of the most ephemeral of all forms of literature, something to be written anew by each new generation in the light of its own peculiar interests and problems. In the schools this has been the ideal ever since the introduction into the curriculum of a special study called "history." Each generation has seized upon the materials that seemed best to respond to its own immediate educational needs. What has come to us of late is, then, not the

discovery of a new principle. It is only a deepened sense of failure to apply an old principle.

The third of our main lines of procedure in dealing with history as a school study starts with the assumption that history in modern schools, like history in modern histories, should describe as accurately as possible and explain as adequately as possible the past itself. This is really new. The principle has been under serious discussion for little more than a generation. It was set forth very clearly by Seignobos in France in 1897 and, shocking as it may appear, by Bernheim in Germany in 1899.

As a matter on which a tolerable agreement had been reached in the teaching of history in the secondary schools of France, Seignobos wrote: "We no longer go to history for lessons in morals, nor for good examples of conduct, nor yet for dramatic or picturesque scenes. We understand that for all these purposes legend would be preferable to history, for it presents a chain of causes and affects more in accordance with our ideas of justice, more perfect and heroic characters, finer and more affecting scenes. Nor do we seek to use history, as is done in Germany, for the purpose of promoting patriotism and loyalty; we feel that it would be illogical for different persons to draw opposite conclusions from the same science according to their country or party; it would be an invitation to every people to mutilate, if not to alter, history in the direction of its preferences. We understand that the value of every science consists in its being true, and we ask from history truth and nothing more."<sup>1</sup>

As a matter on which he was able to report some progress in the schools of Germany, Bernheim argued that school instruction in history must at every stage be kept in harmony with the conclusions of historical science. It must not only be true in its individual facts, it must trace actual historical development, and leave with pupils a definite impression of continuity in human affairs. There must not be one conception of history as an instrument of education and a conflicting conception of history as a branch of serious learning.<sup>2</sup>

This may seem history of the kind sometimes called "history for history's sake," and if we think only of its immediate purpose, which is to find out what the past really was, the phrase is in a way descriptive. But the reason for finding out first what the past really *was* is that ultimately the pupil may find out what the present really *is*. According to the modern conception of historical development, to speak more specifically, nothing ever *was* or *is*. Everything was or is in a continuous process of becoming. In describing that process for school purposes history seeks to indicate whence we came and whither we are going, not as a matter of mere intellectual curiosity, but in order to teach us what we ought to be and to do while we are going. It is as utilitarian as any history can be. The difference between it and other kinds of history lies in the assumption that if the past is

<sup>1</sup> Langlois and Seignobos, *Introduction to the Study of History*, 331.

<sup>2</sup> Neue Bahnen, x, 263.

to be really useful the past must first of all be really understood, and that to understand the past we must look first of all for what mattered then and not first of all for what matters now.

The plan proposed by the Committee follows this third and newest of the main lines of procedure. It aims to trace human development in such a way as to leave in the minds of pupils definite impressions of continuity. So much has already found illustration in numerous European programs, notably in the French program adopted in 1902 and fully in force since 1904. The plan of the Committee aims also to give some conscious training in the historical method of arriving at truth. This step has already been taken in the United States in various experiments with the source-method. It is a step distinctly in advance of European practice.

The part of the Committee's plan which has been assigned to me for discussion opens, in the spirit which has been indicated, with the making of the community. The use of the community as the starting place for historical instruction is as old as the teaching of history and the reasons for it are obvious. The community is the pupil's immediate environment, his domain of direct observation and direct experience. From it he derives a stock of images and ideas that furnish the elements for building up conceptions of other communities. This has been familiar doctrine in discussions of history for two hundred years. What has not been familiar is the plan to make the story of the community a connected story of development and to arouse from the beginning some consciousness of the materials upon which the story is based.

If we are to trace development, the first idea to be grasped is that of change in the world. We may begin, if we wish, in a first grade with some observation of changes now visibly in progress—a moving van, a corner grocery selling out, a building in course of erection, the choice of a new reading book, a reassignment of seats in the school room. Then we may imagine how the school ground looked before the school house was built, how ground nearby looked when there were no houses there, and eventually how the whole community looked when there were no buildings like ours anywhere to be seen and no people like ourselves. Who lived there then? I have never yet met a first grade that would not immediately answer, "Indians."

With Indians the story of any American community will naturally begin. And here at the very outset may begin also a classification of sources of information. Children in a first grade asked how we know Indians once lived here will readily return answers which can be generalized as follows:

1. We have heard about Indians.
2. We have read about Indians.
3. We have seen pictures of Indians.
4. We have seen things used by Indians.

The study of Indian life in the lower grades of the elementary school is so well established that little need be said of it here. The teacher should note that our knowledge of Indians before the coming of

the white man is confined almost wholly to general conditions. We know little about events. Children themselves will often suggest the reason. The Indians did not keep written records. There are, however, some stories that have come down to us, and the study of general conditions may fittingly close with some stories which Indians told about themselves.

The first great event of which we are likely to have record in the community is the coming of the white man. There is at this stage no need for reference to anything beyond the community. Europe and the discovery of America need not be mentioned. The white man may be allowed to burst upon the vision of the children unheralded just as he burst upon the vision of the Indians. This is best accomplished through the use of some original narrative, when such a narrative can be found. For Manhattan Island, for example, an ideal arrangement would be to take a class to the neighborhood of Grant's tomb and follow Hudson's progress up the river in Juet's story. Juet, the children should be informed, was there. To the story as he told it should be added the story as told by Indians themselves and written down long afterward by a white man.

With white men established in the community we begin the study of how they lived, of how their ways of living differed from Indian ways, of the relations between white men and Indians, of things that happened, always selecting conditions and events significant from the point of view of development, and always shaping the story so that one thing leads to another, for the whole story must be a connected story.

Experiment has shown that even for a complicated community like that of Manhattan Island the ground thus indicated, from the days of Indian occupation to the present, can be covered by a first grade in a single year. The plan of the Committee is to have the story of the making of the community in the second grade. That is a measure of safety rather than a measure of conviction.

With such a study of the community as a basis the plan introduces as the topic for the third grade the problem of how Europeans found our continent and what they did with it to about the middle of the eighteenth century. Here the objection will at once be raised that children in the third grade have not had the geography needed to make Europe or Europeans mean anything. The answer is that, with the aid of a globe and a Dercator map of the world, all that is necessary for the purpose can be taught, for it has been taught in a single lesson. And such geography as is needed to elucidate later lessons can and should be taught as integral parts of those lessons. In fact, at any stage of historical instruction, the way to make geography effective is to introduce geography when it is needed to explain something.

Beginning with the work for the third grade the problem of selecting materials increases in difficulty as we go forward with the story. For here we meet our textbook traditions of what should be included in a history of the United States for schools. We have, on the whole, learned better what to put in

than what to leave out. The plan of the Committee assumes a somewhat new intelligence and a somewhat new courage in deciding what to leave out. From the third grade to the sixth the intention is to reduce the number of facts to the lowest minimum compatible with tracing development, to treat the facts that are included with a fulness sufficient to make them real and intelligible, and to arrange the facts throughout so that one thing shall clearly lead to another.

The first fact to be treated in this way in the third grade will naturally be the world that Europeans knew before they found our continent. Here the story of "Wineland the Good" may be used to emphasize the limited geographical knowledge of the time and the need of learning more about Asia and Africa before Europeans could know our continent even after they had found it. The problem of getting across the Atlantic will in due time present itself. It was solved by Columbus and a detailed account of his great voyage should, therefore, be given. After that what need of further details on getting across the Atlantic? In the same way we may select representative experiences in the solution of later problems in the opening of America by European exploration, conquest, and settlement, ending with a general view of Europeans in America about 1750.

As an illustration of what may be done in arousing consciousness of sources of information, I select an exercise pronounced in advance by expert primary teachers as too subtle for a third grade. The children were told that while there are many pictures which are called pictures of Columbus, we do not know that any one of these pictures was painted by anybody who ever saw Columbus. Some persons who knew Columbus, among them one of his sons, have, however, told us how Columbus looked. With this general introduction the teacher read the following description, interjecting questions as indicated.

"His face was long." ("Do you see a long face in the room?" The children found several long faces.) "Neither full nor thin." ("Do you see a face like that?" The children did.) "His cheekbones rather high." ("Find a face like that?" The children did.) "His nose aquiline; his eyes light gray; his complexion fair, and high colored." Each of these elements was sought in faces present in the class room. Next the teacher directed the children to close their eyes and think of how Columbus looked. "How many see Columbus?" A unanimous show of hands. "Is this your Columbus?" showing Jomard's picture. "No." "Why not?" The children gave reasons. Three other pictures were shown and the question repeated. With the exception of one girl the class agreed that of the pictures shown the one taken from the painting in the Ministry of Marine at Madrid was most like the description of Columbus. A better judgment could not be formed by a body of historical experts.<sup>8</sup>

For the fourth grade the general topic is "How Englishmen became Americans." Why do we study

Englishmen more than we study other Europeans who come to America? Why did some Englishmen leave England? What kinds of Englishmen came to America? How did America change Englishmen? In time Englishmen in America grew to be so different from Englishmen in England that we cease to talk about Englishmen in America and begin to talk about Americans. What were the differences?

A clergyman who had heard of the kinds of exercises suggested by such questions expressed very strong disapproval. "That," he said, "is not what we need at all in these days. We do not want to know where we differ with Englishmen; we want to know where we agree with them." And he proposed to treat the past in this spirit. There were, he declared, no serious differences in the eighteenth century between Englishmen on the two sides of the Atlantic. The only difficulty as we appear to have discovered for the first time during the recent war, was the misfortune of Englishmen in having a German King. The people were all right. And so he pointed out that from colonial days down to the present Englishmen on the two sides of the water had been at one in general spirit and purpose. That, in his opinion, was what we should teach in school. Our object should be to promote friendship between England and America, because the future safety of the world depends upon that. I raised with him the question of whether it is at all desirable to present the truth about such things, so far as our limited intelligence enables us to get at the truth. He did not seem to think that truth had anything to do with the case. What he wanted was, of course, history controlled by present interests and problems.

Teachers with some historical conscience, if disturbed at all by such contentions, will probably observe that a study of eighteenth century differences, even if left to point its own moral, may emphasize rather than detract from a feeling of need for understanding and friendship in the twentieth century. The plan for the fourth grade, so far as results have been observed, has left behind no bitterness toward England. The children see that for Englishmen who lived in England it was as natural to think and act in an English way as it was for Americans to think and act in an American way. The fact that some Englishmen agreed with the discontented Americans and that some contented Americans agreed with the English Parliament should, of course, be brought out. But the great fact to be described and explained is that Americans did break the legal ties with England and set out upon a career of independence.

As a measure of what a fourth grade can do, if given the opportunity, I cite an exercise in the study of the Parson's cause. The story as told in Tyler's *Patrick Henry*, supplemented by material in the second volume of Hart's *American History told by Contemporaries*, is developed, with the assistance of the class, up to the point where the case goes to the jury. Then the teacher says: "You be the jury." I have personally tried the exercise a number of times and have seen others try it. In every instance the children have brought in a verdict for one penny. In

<sup>8</sup> Teachers who may wish to try this exercise will find the necessary pictures in Winsor, Narrative and Critical History, II, 70-79.

every instance they have afterward questioned the justice of their own verdict and have explained that they were acting as they thought they should have acted in Virginia in 1763. That would seem to indicate a certain modicum of historical sense.

In the fifth grade the story of American development is carried from the close of the Revolution to the close of Reconstruction. In the sixth grade the story is brought forward to the present and is followed the second half of the year by a study of how we are governed today.

The arrangement for the study of government has invited some special criticism from those who have not considered how much may be eliminated from the usual text-book treatment if we ask with courage what the great underlying principles of the American system are and how they have worked and are working. Experiment has shown that a half year is ample for really intelligent discussion of the following general topics:

1. What our government is?
2. What our government does for us?
3. What we can do for our government?

In the seventh grade the course broadens into a survey of world history, including the United States. It would be entirely feasible to begin such a survey in the fourth grade. The practical consideration that all children, regardless of the age at which they leave school, should have had, before leaving, some special contact with the history of their own country has, however, prevailed. There was also the further consideration of formulating a course suitable either for the 8-4 plan of school organization or for the 6-3-8 plan; that is, either for eight grades followed by four years of high school, or for six grades followed by three years of junior high school.

To bring within the intelligence of seventh and eighth grade children in two short years the long and complicated story of the development of human civilization, from its first dim beginnings down to the present, to embrace in the view the entire world, and to reduce it all to a connected, unified story, is, perhaps, a task which only a schoolmaster or a novelist would have the audacity to undertake. One of the qualifications is beyond doubt a certain large ignorance of the details of world history. Yet the task has been delegated to me by the Committee and I have the audacity to report some progress, the nature of which will be illustrated in a public experiment announced for the coming summer.

Here, as in other parts of the course, the idea is to select a relatively small number of facts of primary significance, to treat those facts with the fulness essential to making them real and intelligible, to arrange them so that one thing shall naturally lead to another, and along the way to furnish training in the use of some of the materials upon which our knowledge rests.

At the outset provision is made for some preliminary discussion of how we know what we know about the human past and why we do not know more. Several kinds of introductory lessons have been tested.

Here is one:

How we know the past:

I. When anything that *was* still *is* we may know about it because—

1. We have seen it—direct observation.
2. We have been told about it—oral tradition.
3. We have read about it—written or printed tradition.
4. We have seen a picture of it, or a diagram, or a map—pictorial tradition.

In how many ways may we know about—

1. The spelling-books used by our grandfathers?
2. The house that George Washington lived in at Mount Vernon?

3. The bows and arrows used by Indians? Which is the best way to know about such things? Is that way always possible? Why? How do we learn most of what we know about such things?

II. When anything has *happened* we may know about it because—

1. We were there—direct observation.
2. We have been told about it—oral tradition.
3. We have read about it—written or printed tradition.

4. We have seen a picture of it—pictorial tradition. In how many ways may we know that—

1. The principal talked to the school yesterday?
2. Theodore Roosevelt graduated from Harvard?
3. Henry Hudson discovered the Hudson river?

What is the best way to know about things that have happened? Is that way always possible? Why? How do we learn most of what we know about things that have happened?

As the work goes on provision is made from time to time for calling attention to the nature of the materials from which we derive information relating to specific topics. The following is an example:

The earliest people.

I. Who they were:

1. How an ancient King answered the question. Herodotus, Book II, 1.

2. How we answer the question. Edward Clodd, *Story of Primitive Man*.

In this brief sketch only a few of the main features of the proposed program have been indicated. A syllabus of the entire course is now approaching completion, but the question of its publication must await future action by the American Historical Association. The most that can be hoped from the present discussion is that it may furnish some illustration of the principles adopted by the Committee and of possible ways of applying those principles.

*Scribner's Magazine* is publishing a series of articles by Corinne Roosevelt Robinson entitled "My Brother Theodore Roosevelt." The first of these, "The Nursery and its Deities," appears in the February issue of that magazine.

"The League at Geneva" is discussed in the January *Fortnightly* by Sisley Huddleston, who says:

"It found itself impotent enough, not only in the realm of action, but in the realm of thought. While it kept to vague generalities it was comparatively safe, but the moment a concrete question came up for judgment then there was at once a desire to shelve it".



## Anglo-American Conference of Professors of History July, 1921

The University of London has decided to hold in the week commencing July 11, 1921, an Anglo-American Conference of Professors of History following on the Conference of Professors of English which was held in July, 1920. That Conference proved very effective in promoting cordial relations between the University staffs of the two countries, and its results from the academic point of view are already apparent. An International Committee has been established to continue in permanent session for the purpose of interchange of information on matters connected with research, and is likely to result in substantial benefits to British and American scholars in the field of English Language and Literature. The University of Columbia proposes to follow the precedent by arranging a Conference in English in 1922.

The University of London has, therefore, undertaken the task of arranging a conference of Professors of History this year with some confidence, particularly in view of the unique appeal which the unrivalled and indispensable archives of London make to historical students of all nations and more especially to English-speaking peoples. There are other reasons for expecting a larger number of overseas delegates this year. Travelling restrictions have to some extent been relaxed; and the creation by the University of a Centre of Historical Research, now in course of construction, will provide a focus and an attraction for American students of History which have hitherto been lacking on this side of the Atlantic.

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"The only solution [of the problem of Mesopotamia] is for Great Britain to take up the Mandate . . . to install an Arab Amir, backed by a council of Arab Ministers with British advisers and an elected Assembly of native deputies with a proportion of Jewish and Christian members; to train at once an Arab army under British and Arab officers to replace the British force as soon as may be; to cut down all British officials, both political and departmental, to the barest minimum, and to postpone all expenditure on public works till money is forthcoming from the National Treasury.

"This would seem the only road to success. With internal security and external peace Mesopotamia should have a bright future. She is not the El Dorado that some would have us believe; nor is she the arid desert, the hell upon earth, the useless appanage of Empire that her opponents are so fond of calling her. She is a vast, long-frontiered land, watered by two wealth-giving rivers, and possessing untapped oil in unknown quantities; and with good and stable government her prosperity is assured, not perhaps in the immediate, but in the ultimate, future. She may never be a white man's country, but there is no real call for her to be so," is the main purport of a very interesting article entitled, "The Problem of Mesopotamia,"

which appears in the *National Review* for January. Its author, who signs himself "The Man on the Spot," wrote this account last September.

"Early Anticipations of Prison Reform," by O. F. Lewis (*Unpartisan Review*, from January to March, 1921), deals most ably with the development of prison reform in America, beginning with the efforts of the Quakers of Pennsylvania, whose initial efforts date back to 1776, and continuing, with less detail as he approaches the later age, down to our own time.

Of all the many reviews, analyses and criticisms of Mr. Wells' *Outlines of History*, the most exacting and the most historically-minded is that by Mr. Hilaire Belloc in the *London Mercury* for November. Mr. Belloc's comments are in themselves quite full of suggestiveness, and apart from his remarks on the book in question decidedly worth reading.

The change brought about in contemporary philosophy by the War, is discussed by C. Rauzoli in his article on the War and the problem of life in the *Rivista d'Italia* for October, 1920.

In his article entitled "The Fight against Cheapness" (*English Review of Reviews* for November), Sir Leo Chiozza Money says:

"The secrets of production have been so far solved that the world may easily have plenty of all considerable commodities if it will concern itself with the organization of production for production's sake. If, however, it is content that the masses of mankind should remain the pawns of production for profit under commercial conditions, it must be content also to witness the frustration of production

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and the continuous succession of booms and slumps which mark the clumsy adjustment of the profits and losses of the industrial condottieri."

In a most unusual article, "Women's Mishandling of Labor" (*English World's Work* for December), which proves eventually to be worth reading for its unusual point of view, James H. Collins says that the economic side of the servant question is reducible to seven basic instincts of humanity—those of self-preservation, of workmanship, of self-respect, of loyalty, of play, of love and of worship. It is the author's expansion of this theme which makes the article readable.

"The problem, therefore, of Ireland is basically in England's eyes an economic one, and all her great wars have proved how far England is prepared to go for economic and industrial advantage. The world, and particularly our country, is interested in the intensely human side of the question of Irish independence, but we have not yet come fully to realize how completely political independence rests on economic independence. England might recognize the political independence of Ireland if she could retain the economic control, but with the latter are bound up interests that England regards as vital to her continued world power. . . . Aside altogether from the sentimental side of the question, its solution is a matter of first importance to our country from the economic point of view. Locked up with the fate of Ireland is the control of the seas and upon the freedom of the seas rests economic liberty or economic thralldom for the world," says Mr. Justice Calahan in an article entitled "Our Economic Interest in Ireland" (January *Forum*), while Hon. William Renwick Riddell presents England's case in the Irish question in an article in the same magazine, entitled "Post-war Prophecies," in which he considers the Irish trouble as an expression of Bolshevism. He says: "This movement is directed to the destruction of everything upon which we have prided ourselves—our civilization, our security for person and property, our system of government, our democracy and our rule by majorities without disregard of the rights of minorities—avowedly destruction is sought, root and branch destruction—in order that a new tree may be planted—that the absolute government of one class may prevail."

In "The Good Old Days in Morocco" (*Blackwood's* for December), Walter B. Harris contrasts the brutality of Moslem and Jewish conditions with the general enlightenment of the French rule, dwelling particularly on such evidences of improvement as the establishment of hospitals and dispensaries, and the general abolition of superstition.

In his third article on "The Life Work of John Henry Newman," now appearing in *The Catholic World*, Herbert Lucas discussed the Cardinal's connection with education and says in particular: "It would, however, be a very serious mistake to imagine that Newman was solicitous only for liberty of scientific and historical research. He was even more keenly alert to the danger arising from the proneness of scientific experts to overpass the limits of their own branches of knowledge."

In the *Nineteenth Century* for January, 1921, in his most able article on "China and the West," G. T. Orm says:

"For good or evil the Manchu dynasty has fallen by outside pressure and by its own weakness. But little as it may be regretted, the institution of the Monarchy cannot be taken from China without her suffering grave injury. She is left without the leader to whom she has been taught to look and pay homage; and while soldiers and robber chieftains contend with such forces as scanty pay and the temptation of pillage can attract, the foreign-trained political theorists raise unwieldy superstructures of Western law

and administration which they think to fit on to a civilization desiring no better guide than its time-honored ideals and traditions, and asking of its leaders no more than to be their guardians."

In "Germany Since Revolution," an article in the January *Yale Review*, the Author of *J'Accuse*, after commenting on the strikes and on various political disturbances, says:

"The German people, so far as can be foreseen . . . will not awake until it is too late. Just as the old Imperial Germany of 1914 slept through four years of war and awoke only at the defeat, so the republican Germany of today will slumber until the flourish of trumpets of the new militarism announces to it the downfall of all that has been painfully won by the revolution. Then will follow a Titanic combat between the military caste and the proletariat, wherein the great mass of the bourgeoisie, again as in 1918, will take no active part. Unhappy Germany will be devoured by an internecine war such as the world has not yet seen. Then will come the political and economic disaster, already showing its grinning death's head, which will carry down with it all that is still standing."

Austin Harrison, editor of *The English Review*, has an interesting article in the November issue of that magazine entitled, "After Two Years of Peace." In it he complains that "since the armistice we have lived on empirical platitudes drawn from the vocabulary of a hundred years ago when Europe was not an industrial organism and boundaries were the playthings of kings. It did not matter then to the workers of Europe economically to which sovereign they owed allegiance, and credit was in those days an English science. Today Europe is a highly developed industrial organism dependent for food upon the mechanism of credit and exchange, actually dependent for food upon the New World. . . . Hardly a country in Europe is self-sufficient."

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- Andrews, Matthew P., compiler. *The women of the South in war times [Civil War, World War]*. Balto.: Norman, Remington Co., 347 N. Charles St. 446 pp. (1 p. bibl.). \$2.50 net.
- Bradlee, Francis B. C. *History of the Boston and Maine Railroad*. Salem, Mass.: The Essex Institute. 84 pp. \$2.00.
- Dane, William M. *From the Rapidan to Richmond and the Spottsylvania campaign*. Balto.: Green-Lucas Co., Hanover and Fayette Sts. 216 pp. \$2.50.
- Foss, Louis O. *History of Stony Brook Township, from the first settlement to 1918*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Augsburg Pub. House. 280 pp. Privately printed.
- Harris, James R., editor. *The Documents concerning the Appraisalment of the Mayflower*. New York: Longmans, Green. 9 pp. 30 cents net. *The marriage certificate of William Bradford and Dorothy May*. New York: Longmans, Green. 5 pp. 30 cents net. *The Plymouth copy of the first charter of Virginia*. New York: Longmans, Green. 20 pp. 40 cents net. *Refusal of the Leyden authorities to expel the Pilgrims*. New York: Longmans, Green. 10 pp. 30 cents net.
- Horde, Brynjolf J. *Diplomatic relations of the United States with Sweden and Norway, 1814-1905*. Iowa City, Iowa: Univ. of Iowa. 70 pp. (1½ p. bibl.)
- Leach, Eugene W. *Racine, an historical narrative*. Racine, Wis.: United Commercial Travelers Council, No 337. 200 pp.
- Mackennal, Alexander. *Homes and haunts of the Pilgrim fathers*. Philadelphia: Jacobs. 123 pp. \$5.00.
- Madison, James. *The debates on the Federal Convention of 1787, edited by James B. Scott and Gaillard Hunt*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 731 pp. \$4.00.
- Mills, Joseph T. *Great Britain and the United States; a review of their historical relations*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 68 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Skinner, Alanson B. *Medicine ceremony of the Menomini, Iowa, and Wahpeton Dakota, with notes on the ceremony among the Ponca, Bungi, Ojibwa, and Potawatomi*. New York: Museum of the Amer. Indian, Heye Foundation. 357 pp. \$3.00.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Aristotle. *The works of Aristotle, trans. into English. New sections of Vol. X. Oeconomica; Atheniensium republica*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. \$2.25.
- Cowley, Arthur E. *The Hittites*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 94 pp. \$2.70 net.
- Jones, Henry S. *Fresh light on Roman bureaucracy*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 38 pp. 70 cents.
- Kharosthi inscriptions discovered by Sir Aurel Stein in Chinese Turkestan*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 154 pp. \$13.50.
- Mann, Jacob. *The Jews in Egypt and in Palestine under the Fatimid Caliphs. Vol. I. (969 C. E.-1204 C. E.)*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 280 pp. \$5.65.
- Nilsson, Martin P. *Primitive time reckoning; a study of the origins and first development of the art of counting time among primitive and early culture peoples*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 384 pp. \$9.45.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Brown, Carleton F., editor. *The Stonyhurst Pageant*. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press. 302 pp. \$3.30.
- Chancellor, Edwin B. *The XVIII Century in London*. New York: Scribner. 271 pp. \$12.00 net.

- Farrer, William. *An outline itinerary of King Henry the First [reprinted from the English Historical Review]*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 182 pp. \$8.00.
- Guilford, Everard L. *Nottingham (The Story of English towns)*. New York: Macmillan. 121 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Jusseraud, Jean A. A. J. *English wayfaring life in the Middle Ages; 14th Century [revised and enlarged edition]*. New York: Putnam. 464 pp. \$7.50 net.
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- Mowat, Robert B. *A new history of Great Britain; pt. 1, from the Roman conquest to the death of Queen Elizabeth*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 307 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Neilson, M., and Ballard, A. I. *A terrier of fleet, Lincolnshire from a ms. in the B. M. 2. An Eleventh Century inquisition of S. Augustine's Canterbury*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 214, 34 pp. \$9.45.
- Tout, Thomas F. *The captivity and death of Edward of Carnarvon*. New York: Longmans, Green. 50 pp. 80 cents net.
- Withington, Robert. *English pageantry, an historical outline. Vol. 2*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 441 pp. \$6.00 net.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Hermannsson, Halldór. *Bibliography of the Eddas*. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell Univ. Lib. 95 pp. \$1.00.
- Sloane, William M. *The Balkans, a lavatory of history, revised and enlarged*. New York: The Abingdon Press. 412 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Stuart, Graham H. *French Foreign policy; from Jashoda to Serajevo; 1898-1914*. New York: Century Co. 392 pp. (8 p. bibl.). \$3.00 net.
- Tilley, Arthur A. *The French wars of religion [Helps for students of history, No. 8]*. New York: Macmillan. 54 pp. (6 p. bibl.). 25 cents net.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Bernhardt, Joshua. *Government control of the sugar industry in the United States*. New York: Macmillan. 272 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Blatt, Helman K., compiler. *Sons of men; Evansville's [Ind.], war record*. Evansville, Ind.: A. P. Madison. 316 pp. \$3.85.
- Davis, Noel. *Sweeping the North Sea mine barrage, 1919*. New York: J. D. McGuire, 241 W. 37th St. 150 pp. \$7.50 net.
- Frothingham, Thomas G. *A true account of the battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916*. Cambridge, Mass.: Bacon and Brown. 62 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Lowe, M. D. *War history of the 18th (S.) battalion Durham Light Infantry*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 205 pp. \$5.65.
- Institute of International affairs. *The German treaty text*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 302 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Moss, James A., and Howland, H. S. *Chateau Thierry; an American shrine*. Menasha, Wis.: G. Banta Pub. Co. 34 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Perris, George H. *The battle of the Marne*. Boston: Luce. 300 pp. \$3.50 net.
- U. S. Army Ambulance Co., No. 33. *The history and La Trine rumor of Ambulance Company 33*. Morristown, N. J.: F. H. Wilke, 42 Court St. 190 pp. \$15.00.
- U. S. Army, 313th Field Artillery. *A history of the 313th Field Artillery, U. S. A.* New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 299 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Young Men's Christian Ass'n. *History of the Y. M. C. A. in the Le Mans area*. Portland, Ore.: The Arcady Press and Mail Advertising Co. 218 pp. \$4.25.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Davis, Carlyle C. *The Holy Land; before and after the World War*. Boston: The Roxborough Pub. Co., 61 Court St. 209 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Ditchfield, Peter H. *Old Village Life, glimpses of village life through all ages*. New York: Dutton. 253 pp. \$2.50.

- Kingsford, H. S. Seals. (Helps for students of history, No. 30.) New York: Macmillan. 59 pp. (1½ p. bibl.). 50 cents.
- Madelay, Helen M. History as a school of citizenship; with a foreword by the Master of Balliol. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 106 pp. \$2.00.
- Mason, William A. A history of the art of writing. New York: Macmillan. 489 pp. (6¼ p. bibl.). \$6.50.
- Tod, James. Annals and antiquities of Rajasthau, or the Central and Western Rajput estates of India. 3 Vols. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 588, 668, 606 pp. \$23.65.

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- Bacon, Roger. *Secretum Secretorum; cune glossis et notulis* [etc.]. Opera hoc tenus inedita Rogeri Baconi. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 64 pp. \$12.60.
- Bridgman, Howard A. New England in the life of the World. [Biographies of famous New Englanders.] Boston: Pilgrim Press, 14 Beacon St. 393 pp. (2¼ p. bibl.). \$4.00 net.
- Saunders, Kenneth J. Gotama Buddha, a biography. New York: Ass'n Press. 113 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Scott, William R. William Cunningham; a memoir, 1849—1919; a memoir. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 10 pp. 70 cents.
- Dante, Alighieri. Dantis Alagherii epistolae [emended text with notes, etc.]. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 306 pp. \$5.65 net.
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- Lee, Sir Sidney, editor. The dictionary of national biography, 1901-1911 [reissue of second supplement on thin paper, 3 vols. in one]. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 650, 676, 728 pp. \$16.20.
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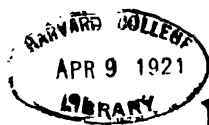
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Volume XII.  
Number 4.

PHILADELPHIA, APRIL, 1921.

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Volume XII.  
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## Historical Study in English Universities

BY PROFESSOR BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

The number of American students coming to English universities appears to be steadily increasing, and some, perhaps many, of them arrive without any clear notion of the technique of entering a university, the facilities for study or the manner of obtaining degrees. The object of this paper is to give some account, for the benefit of teachers and students of history in America, of the opportunities for historical study afforded by the English universities. This seems the more desirable because the calendars, statutes and regulations which correspond to our catalogues are by no means easy for the average American to understand or interpret. On the other hand, the English university officials are not always able to estimate readily the amount of work which a student has accomplished in America, especially if he comes from a small college.

As is true of most English institutions from Parliament down, the English universities have "grown" each with its own traditions and usages, and the overseas enquirer, accustomed to the uniformities of our academic system, is at first greatly confused. It is, however, possible to distinguish two principal types: one, the old universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and two, the new municipal institutions, of which London and Manchester are of particular interest to students of history. Each will have to be considered separately, first as regards the B.A. degrees, and then with reference to the graduate departments, of which there has been a certain development as a result of the war. In general, the facilities for graduate work are better organized in London and Manchester than in the old universities; at the same time, it would be a great mistake to suppose that the American B. A. will not find an Oxford or Cambridge course very much to his profit.

Oxford and Cambridge are residential universities composed of colleges, and a student must be enrolled in a college (or, *faute de mieux*, in a non-collegiate body). Admission to a college is not, as it were, a matter of right (which is the American notion, if a student is properly prepared), but a favor. The first step for an American wishing to study in either Oxford or Cambridge is to get himself accepted by some college, which involves making formal application to the head or other proper authority; a list of the colleges and the proper official to address is provided in the *Handbooks* issued by both universities. Once admitted to a college, the student must next pass an entrance examination (in most colleges, this

is a preliminary condition of admission), at Oxford called "Responsions ("Smalls"), at Cambridge the Previous Examination ("Little-Go"); and then (at Oxford) a second examination within the first year, the First Public Examination. These out of the way, the student proceeds to a Final Honor School (Oxford) or a Tripos (Cambridge), taken at the end of the third or fourth year (for purposes of American students the Pass Schools may be left out of consideration). Although there is no absolute rule, except for graduates of universities which have been admitted as Affiliates Institutions, yet, generally speaking, graduates of American colleges and universities are excused from the preliminary examinations, and may proceed at once to an Honor School or Tripos, the examination for which they may take at the end of their second year of residence.

The Honor School of Modern History at Oxford and the Historical Tripos at Cambridge may be cordially recommended as admirable "ground schools" for advanced historical study. At Oxford, women are now admitted to degrees and privileges on the same basis as men; the ultimate outcome of the agitation at Cambridge, which has for the present refused to grant degrees to women, is uncertain. In both cases, as, indeed, at all English universities, there is a much greater specialization than we are accustomed to, even where the major and minor system is fully developed; as will be seen from the following synopses, the student devotes his whole attention to history and certain allied subjects.

In the Oxford Honor School the subjects of study are:

1. English history—political, constitutional, economic.
2. General history, in one of eight periods, the first beginning at A. D. 285, the last ending at A. D. 1878.
3. A special subject, studied from original authorities; eleven choices are offered at present.
4. Political science, with special reference to certain famous writers.
5. Economic theory.
6. A thesis (optional).
7. "A knowledge of constitutional law and political and descriptive geography."
8. Sight translation from at least one modern language.

For students who have to take the First Public Examination, a Previous Examination in History has been instituted. Its subjects are the Outlines of European History, 800-1494 or 1494-1789; original texts—Tacitus, *Germania*; Aristotle, *Politics*, Books I and III, and a choice of certain historical classics; elements of economic theory; and sight translation from one ancient and one modern language.

The Cambridge Tripos is divided into two parts. Part I is taken at the end of the second year; Part II at the end of the third or fourth year, according as four or five subjects are offered. Americans with advanced standing can reduce these periods by one year. The course of study is as follows:

#### PART I

1. Subjects for an essay.
2. English history—political, constitutional, economic.
3. General European history (medieval).
4. General European history (ancient), or Political Science A, "a comparative study of political institutions and their development, with some reference to the history of political theory."

#### PART II

1. Subjects for an essay.
2. General European history (modern).
3. A special subject, studied in original authorities; a choice of eight is offered.
4. Political Science B, "the nature and end of the state and the grounds of political obligation, the structure and functions of government, with reference to the requirements of the modern state."
5. Political economy.
6. International law.

A student offers one or two only of the last three subjects.

At both Oxford and Cambridge, constitutional history is studied largely from documents (in the collections of Stubbs, Prothero, Gardiner and Robertson), thereby affording a valuable training in the use of sources. Furthermore, a considerable knowledge of detail is required, and the number of books to be read will come as a distinct surprise to the American student who is accustomed to a text and some collateral references. But undoubtedly the most valuable feature, which is not to be found elsewhere, is the tutorial system, under which the student goes once a week for an hour's conference with his tutor, to read an essay and discuss his work. Here it is that he is taught to think and to write (not by any theme course) and is imbued with the historical spirit. The writer looks back upon these hours as the most stimulating moments of his Oxford experience, worth more than most lectures and many books. Not that the lectures, which are innumerable and of the most varied scope, are unimportant. But the fundamental purpose of the Honor School or Tripos is to draw out the individual, to develop his critical powers, to inculcate sound methods rather than to cram his mind with mere historical information. It is significant that in the examinations answers are desired from only five or six of perhaps the twenty questions set,

the idea being that the quality of a student's work can be readily gauged from his treatment of those subjects with which he is most familiar. It should also be noted that the most serious study is done, not at the university, where the student spends only 25 weeks of the year, but in the vacations, especially in the "long" or summer holiday. An American student who followed this practice would be a prime favorite with his teachers. Most Americans, even if equipped with a respectable historical knowledge, will find these "Schools" worthy of their mettle, and a First Class is one of the highest academic distinctions in England.

For many years Oxford has offered research degrees, the B.Litt. and the D.Litt., and the former has been taken by several American historians. But neither has quite met the demand for graduate work by Rhodes Scholars and other foreign students. The D.Litt. is awarded only to M.A.'s and B.Litt.'s of Oxford for published work, and, usually, to men of mature years. The B.Litt., on the other hand, is open to persons who have received "a good general education," is awarded, after not less than two years' study, upon the completion of a satisfactory dissertation, prepared under the direction of a supervisor and successfully sustained in an oral examination. Being exclusively a research degree, it is not, except in unusual cases, recommended to an American, for it does not provide that preliminary technical training which is the prerequisite of all genuine research.

It is to supply this need that the Ph.D. has recently been established, the requirements for which are a previous degree approved by the University, three years' study, an examination and a dissertation. The candidate, instead of beginning his research at once, will spend the first year in preparatory study and need signify the subject of his dissertation only at the end of the year. At present, it must be admitted, the facilities for giving this technical training are not highly developed, but the need will be met as the demand grows. Students who may be granted advanced standing are permitted to come up for the degree in two years: in practice, this will apply to those who are fitted to begin their research, under a supervisor, immediately upon coming into residence. The examination for the Ph.D. in history will include a paper on the general history of the subject or period to which the dissertation relates, and a paper on the primary and secondary authorities for the period; in certain cases, a knowledge of palæography and diplomatic and other auxiliary subjects will be required. The supervisor is expected "to direct and superintend the work of a student, but not to give him systematic instruction." As the degree is a very new thing, no evidence of its practical working is as yet available. But graduate students will find Professor Charles H. Firth and other scholars more than ready to give them much time and to assist them in every way possible; indeed, it is probable that students will enjoy a more intimate association with their supervisors than is common in our American universities. Communications with reference to the degree should be addressed to the

Assistant Registrar, University Registry, Oxford, who will supply detailed information.

The Cambridge arrangements for research work are much the same as at Oxford; full information may be obtained from the Registry of the University, which will supply the *Research Student's Handbook*, or from Sir Geoffrey Butler, Corpus Christi College, who from his knowledge of American universities and as Lecturer in History is particularly able to advise American students. The Ph.D. degree is granted to graduates of other universities upon completion of a dissertation. The prescribed period of study is three years, but persons specially qualified may be excused one year of research, and those who may need the full time are allowed to spend one year, or in even special cases even two years, away from Cambridge. A candidate for the Ph.D. must indicate, in applying for admission, the specific course of study he wishes to pursue, and must supply "adequate evidence that he is qualified to enter upon the proposed course." The university has recently instituted the degrees of M.Litt. and M.Sc. (comparable to the B.Litt. and B.Sc. at Oxford), which are awarded for a two years' course of research, or in connection with the Ph.D.

Some of the Cambridge colleges, e. g., Trinity and Corpus Christi, admit American students properly qualified for one year to read with a special teacher or to follow out some particular research. Such residence does not lead to a degree, but does permit a real incorporation in the college and university life. At present, four Americans and two Canadians have availed themselves of this privilege at Corpus Christi. Sir Geoffrey Butler will be glad to furnish information about certain scholarships, bursaries, etc., available for Americans.

The University of London is composed of a large number of colleges, schools and institutions, but the graduate teaching in history is provided principally in King's and University Colleges, and in the new Institute of Historical Research about to be opened. The colleges possess no residential facilities, which is the essence of the Oxford-Cambridge system, but are teaching centres only. Admission to them is therefore generally granted to all who pass or secure exemption from the Matriculation Examination. An Intermediate Examination is taken at the end of the first year, after which students proceed in two years to the B.A. degree (Pass or Honor). A First or Second Class in an Honor School, or its equivalent, is a prerequisite for the higher degrees (M.A., D.Lit., Ph.D.). Graduates of American colleges and universities intending to take one of these higher degrees in history will, unless specially qualified, be expected to take, at the end of their first year, certain papers in the B.A. Honors examination.

The Honor School is divided into four branches:

1. Ancient and medieval history: the ancient world, general European history to 1500, English history to the middle of the fifteenth century.

2. Medieval and modern history: English history, and general European history from A. D. 895.

3. Oriental history, with special reference to the history of India: British history from 1714, the history of India and general European history, 895-1500 or from 1500.

4. Oriental history, with special reference to the history of the Near and Middle East: British history since 1714, history of the Near and Middle East from A. D. 895, the Eastern Question since 1500, and general European history, 895-1500 or since 1500.

In each branch students are also examined in the History of Political Ideas; in an optional subject, studied in original documents; in a special subject, with some attention to Historical Evidence; in Historical Geography; and in sight translation from a foreign language. Lectures are given at the various colleges and schools of the University, but the tutorial system is not in vogue, although something comparable to the Princeton preceptorial system is being developed.

American students will, however, be more interested in the facilities for graduate work. The M.A. degree is granted for a thesis on an approved subject, "which is either a record of original work or an ordered and critical exposition of existing data with regard to a particular subject"; there is an oral examination on the subject of the thesis, and a written examination "in a subject or subjects cognate to the thesis specially prescribed in each case."

Candidates for the Ph.D. "must possess adequate historical equipment." The course of study is not less than two years. The thesis "must form a distinct contribution to the knowledge of the subject, afford evidence of originality, and be produced in a form suitable for publication"; there are the usual written and oral examinations.

Detailed information can be obtained from the Academic Registrar, University of London, South Kensington, London, S. W. 7. Candidates should make application for registration before coming to London; if possible, in the session before that in which they desire to begin their work, for each application is considered individually by the Senate of the University. Applications should be accompanied by evidence of graduation, a certificate of the course of study, a copy of the catalogue of the candidate's university, testimonials and copies of any printed papers, together with a statement of the course of study which, and the teacher under whom, the candidate desires to study, the nature of the subject proposed for a thesis and the date when he proposes to begin his work. Information concerning courses of study may be secured from the Chairman of the Board of Studies in History, University of London, South Kensington, London, S. W. 7.

Undoubtedly, American students will be attracted chiefly by the new Institute of Historical Research, which is the nearest approach in any English university to an American graduate school. Housed in a building specially constructed for it, in which is located also the British Institute of International Affairs, around the corner from the British Museum and the Royal Historical Society, and not far from



the Public Record Office, it will surely become the Mecca of all research students and it will be ready to welcome American visitors in the coming summer. The collections of printed sources and historical publications to be brought together will not, at least, for some time, be more extensive than are to be found in our own large libraries, but, being readily accessible, they will be more convenient than the books of the British Museum. But what Americans will appreciate most will be the opportunity to meet the leaders of historical study in England; for, although the school is under the immediate control of the University of London and will be the centre of graduate teaching in the university, many other historians, such as Professor Firth, of Oxford, and Professor Tout, of Manchester, are deeply interested, and the officials of the Record Office are coöperating. It is sufficient to remark that the Institute will be directed by Professor A. F. Pollard, who will have as his associates such scholars as Professor Paul Mantoux, Professor F. J. C. Hearnshaw, Professor A. P. Newton, Dr. Hubert Hall, Dr. R. W. Seton-Watson, Mr. H. W. V. Temperley and many other able men and women. The seminar system is better developed than in the other universities, and there are various historical societies and conferences; while it is hardly necessary to add that the greatest collections of sources for English history are located in London. Americans, whether distinguished scholars or budding graduate students, may be assured that everything possible will be done to make their stay both pleasant and profitable. Students who do not wish to read for a degree will also be able to use the Institute and to receive instruction from the staff. The Institute will be formally opened in May, and in the week of July 11 there will be a conference of professors of history in British, American and Canadian universities, for which invitations have been sent out on a generous scale. It is hoped that a large and representative group of American scholars will be present.

The University of Manchester, in its organization, scope and purpose, resembles our own great institutions of learning more closely than any other university in England; no special description is therefore necessary. The Historical School was founded before Owens College had become the University, and among its professors have been Sir Adolphus Ward and Dr. James Tait, now Honorary Professor. The Honors School, established thirty-nine years ago, has probably turned out a greater number of historical investigators, in proportion to its enrollment, than any other course in England; witness the *Historical Series* of the Manchester University Press, to which its members have contributed all but three of the thirty-eight volumes.

The Honors course for the B.A. degree aims at giving "both a broad view of universal history and the beginnings of specialized training." It covers the general history of Western civilization, ancient, medieval and modern; a more particular study of British political and constitutional history; a special subject mainly studied in original authorities drawn from within a special period more generally studied;

certain "prescribed books," historical classics, original and secondary; and one or more theses based on sources within the special period. Certain courses are also required in Latin and one other language, as well as in some of the following subjects—archæology, geography, literature, political economy and political science. The examination is in two parts, taken at the end of the second and third years, respectively; it is interesting to observe that in the second part there is an optional paper on the nineteenth century.

In the organized facilities for graduate work, Manchester at present stands at the head of the English universities. Special courses and seminars for advanced students are offered as follows: the reign of Hadrian, history of Roman Britain, certain aspects of early church history, various topics of English history in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, palæography, medieval historical bibliography and archæology, English history in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, history of British India, and British colonial history in the seventeenth century. The Department of Economic History has special advantages to offer on the subjects of guilds, mercantilist commercial policy, English social history in the early nineteenth century, the Lancashire cotton industry, and modern industrial problems. Professors T. F. Tout, J. Tait, F. M. Powicke, Ramsay Muir, George Unwin and Mr. A. G. Little need no introduction in America, while the recent appointment of M. Robert Fawtier and Professor E. G. Gardner will facilitate advanced studies in French and Italian medieval history; there are many other competent scholars on the teaching staff.

The university library is the largest in any of the new institutions in England, and there are three specialized departmental libraries. The John Rylands Library in the city of Manchester, in addition to its general historical collections, which are very extensive and include a great variety of manuscripts and incunabula, contains over 10,000 pamphlets for English history in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and much manuscript and other rare material for the history of British India. Several research fellowships and scholarships have been established, some of which are not restricted to alumni of the University or to British subjects. Mention should also be made of the historical conference, composed of teachers and advanced students, which meets about six times a year for dinner and discussion.

The M.A. degree is awarded to approved graduates of any university for two years' research embodied in a thesis. The Ph.D. degree requires a definite course of study and training in historical method, extending over not less than two years and approved by the department, which may prescribe instruction in other departments; after the first year, the research for the thesis may be carried on elsewhere, with the approval of the university. There is an oral examination on the subject of the thesis and "in matters relevant thereto," and a candidate may be, in some cases, required to pass a written examination. Two copies of the thesis, with a short

abstract, must be given to the university. At the present time there are seven students working for the Ph.D. in history. Full information will be supplied by Professor T. F. Tout, who is the Director of Advanced Study in History.

Americans will be interested to learn that Manchester is the first English university to provide instruction in American history. To meet the request of the Manchester Branch of the Anglo-American League, Miss Frances Morehouse, of the University of Minnesota, has been appointed Assistant Lecturer to give lectures in American history.

In this brief survey, which has been rather technical, it has not been possible to illustrate the spirit in which historical research is being carried on in England, or to speak of the great variety of the opportunities afforded. Suffice it to say that in all the universities there is a new enthusiasm for advanced

study, and that every effort is being made to provide both adequate facilities and organized instruction. There are at least eight American historians pursuing research in London this winter. They will all, I am sure, testify to the courtesy with which they have been received in university circles and the many kindnesses extended to them on every hand. It is to be hoped that in subsequent years an even greater number of our students and scholars will avail themselves of these privileges.<sup>2</sup>

London, February, 1921.

<sup>2</sup>Principal Ernest Barker, Professor A. F. Pollard and Miss E. Jeffries Davis, of London; Sir Geoffrey Butler, of Cambridge; and Professor T. F. Tout, of Manchester, have been of great assistance in giving the writer the latest information about their respective universities. The American University Union, 50 Russell Square, London, W. C. 1, may be consulted by prospective students, as well as the University authorities indicated above.

## Research Work in the Historical Branch of the General Staff

BY COL. OLIVER L. SPAULDING, JR., HISTORICAL BRANCH, GENERAL STAFF,  
U. S. WAR DEPARTMENT

Historical research as a military function seems to be looked upon somewhat in the light of an innovation in this country, but in reality the idea should not be surprising to us. In the nature of things, generals have always founded their military systems on the history of past operations; and we have examples of historical accounts of military operations from all ages. Disregarding the Iliad for the time being, as based upon insufficient documentation, and as treating the Trojan War from the popular, rather than the critical point of view, we may at least mention Xenophon as a general with a true historical eye. A distinguished military teacher in time of peace, a successful leader in war, his march tables of Cyrus' army are not a bad model for the keeper of a war diary today. Even the school boy, without military training and with the desire only to get through the prescribed number of lines of text, remembers them gratefully for their simplicity and clarity; I heard a man remark the other day that the only words of Greek that stuck in his mind were "*enteuthen exelaunci*." And no commanding officer can read his terse account of his troubles when rounding up stragglers in action without recognizing all the symptoms, and realizing that human nature forms the material of a soldier, special armament and technique only the exterior form and coloring.

A few centuries later, we find that distinguished military historian Julius Caesar, more conspicuous than Xenophon as a general, but possibly more open to suspicion on the ground of political bias.

Coming at once to more modern times, we find Napoleon as the great exponent of this field of military study. As we all know, he was a deep student of military history; not only did he study the methods of the great masters, but when he contem-

plated operations in any particular theater, he was careful to look up all previous operations there, as we might have looked up our Caesar between 1914 and 1917, and as we may have occasion to review Xenophon if we take up the Armenian mandate. But, more directly in point than this, he also made a record of his own campaigns, for the benefit of himself and of posterity. That is, he had a real Historical Branch in his General Staff, functioning intermittently only, but functioning.

To use the current slang of the present day, his communiqués were propaganda. But they were for that use only; for private use he wanted facts, ample and uncolored. Hence he took pains to have his battlefields carefully surveyed, as soon as possible, and plans of the battles prepared for record and for study.

Still more recently, and within our own memories, we see that the two leading military countries, Germany and France, maintained conspicuously active historical sections in their staffs. Their work on the Franco-Prussian War, of course, is the most conspicuous, but they by no means limited themselves to this; they dealt with military history in general, and were willing to learn in any school. On the Franco-Prussian War, the German work leaves much to be desired in the matter of impartiality; but on foreign wars this is not the case. And all work of both historical sections, without exceptions, is very well done and very valuable. We all know how closely the Germans had studied Hannibal, and how much Schlieffen's writings on the battle of Cannae influenced their strategy and tactics in the recent war; it is perhaps less well known that they had done a good deal of excellent work on our Civil War, and that the French are now making studies of it.

In the United States, before the war with Germany, we had never had a bureau to deal with military history. Unofficial interest had, however, been increasing both within and without the army; a few officers had published studies of some merit, and a few civilian historians had given their attention to this specialty. Prominent among the latter was the late Prof. R. M. Johnston, of Harvard, whose book on Bull Run gave reason to expect much from him had it not been for his recent untimely death, undoubtedly hastened by his service in France, which service will be mentioned again below.

Another distinguished historian who dealt with military affairs during the period in question was Justin H. Smith, whose book on our war with Mexico, although published since the war, was in preparation for some years before it. This book is remarkable, as showing the open-minded way in which the trained historical worker approaches a new problem, and the care he takes in preparing himself to handle it. It is to be hoped that Prof. Smith will not leave the military field altogether, but will make further use of the military knowledge that he has acquired in the preparation of this book.

Within the army, interest was greatly stimulated by an expansion of the scope of the historical courses at the Service Schools. Up to about 1905, military history had been taught there chiefly in the form of narrative accounts of operations, with more or less discussion of the strategy and tactics involved; there was little or no attention given to developing in the student the power to do historical work himself. Courses in historical method were now introduced, treating historical documents as laboratory material, and illustrating the laboratory technique necessary to deduce facts therefrom. The facts themselves so deduced were treated as useful by-products rather than the primary purpose of the work. These courses gave rise to much discussion, many officers were led to place themselves in the critical attitude of investigators, and the way was prepared for the development of a special historical organ in the War Department.

In the spring of 1918 this organ made its appearance in the form of the Historical Branch, War Plans Division, General Staff. This Branch was assigned offices in the War College Building, where the whole War Plans Division was then quartered; it began at once to collect historical documents and prepared to make use of them. It was fortunate in securing the services of several historians of standing, who joined it, serving under emergency commissions; the military character was impressed upon it by assigning as its first chief a graduate of the Service School courses above mentioned, and as members several retired officers who had gained reputation as military historians. Its strength grew to some thirty officers before the Armistice.

It was evident that nothing could be done for a long time on activities abroad; personnel and facilities were lacking in the theater of operations, and the requirements of secrecy were more stringent. But a beginning was made with military activities in the United States. Sections were formed to deal with

diplomatic relations as affecting military problems, and with the economic and military mobilization of the country, and for the collection and preservation of photographs. A detailed and careful survey was made of the ground which might ultimately be covered; and this resulted in an outline suitable for a very complete history of the participation of the United States in the war. This outline, of course, was never considered to be a finished product, but remained always subject to current revision.

Naturally, no detailed plans for the history of operations could be made beforehand and at a distance; it was necessary to leave blank spaces in the outline, and then send observers abroad to make the plans. Prof. R. M. Johnston, then serving in the Historical Branch, under a temporary commission as major, was detached for this purpose and sent to France with a small party of assistants. He was placed on duty at General Headquarters of the American Expeditionary Forces in the Historical Section, General Staff; he established its archives, soon became its chief, and continued as such until the expansion of the section after the armistice, when he remained as assistant chief. That section passed through many vicissitudes, but succeeded in collecting a large quantity of documents; it was finally designated as the repository of papers turned in to G. H. Q. by troop units ordered home, and in general of all historical documents which had ceased to be "live files" in the office of origin.

In the spring of 1919, more officers having become available on account of the termination of hostilities, the G. H. Q. Section was much enlarged and undertook a considerable amount of field work. The ground covered by the most important of the American operations was studied and record made of all evidence found there which might assist in later interpretation of documents. This evidence was put in the form of maps, sketches, photographs, and written field notes. This work was undertaken only just in time, for, while evidence of this nature was still plentiful it was rapidly disappearing; the clearing up of debris and the plowing of fields was progressing with great rapidity, a most encouraging indication of early rehabilitation of the country.

Meanwhile, a similar Historical Section had been established, independently, at headquarters of the Services of Supply, and had been very active in collecting material dealing with every phase of that intricate organization. Original documents were accumulated or located in the files where they originated, and special historical summaries were called for from all services. After the armistice, when the Peace Conference assembled, a representative of the Historical Branch was sent to Paris to follow its proceedings. A large mass of material on the diplomatic situation was thus obtained.

In June, 1919, these activities abroad ceased. Representatives of each of the historical sections there were brought to Washington and placed on duty in the Historical Branch. The War Plans Division left the War College Building about this time, freeing it for its proper use; the Historical Branch moved,

first, to temporary quarters in another building at Washington Barracks, and later to its present location in the semi-permanent building at Sixth and B Streets, S. W. This building now contains the bulk of the records of the war with Germany, comprised in the files of the Adjutant General's office, those of G. H. Q., and those of the Historical Branch. Reduction of that Branch was already in progress, by discharges and otherwise; and this reduction has continued steadily, until only a very small force is now at work.

Its functions, as determined, in 1919, by the Secretary of War, included preserving historical documents relating to the wars of the United States; making these documents, or the information contained therein, accessible to agencies of the War Department and to students and investigators properly accredited; and preparing historical monographs on such military subjects as may be of interest to the War Department. Later, another line of work was assigned to it—supervision of all historical work in the War Department. The reason for this was that many bureaus and services were at work on histories of their own activities. It became evident that the result would be publications on totally different scales, with totally different programs, and with totally different standards of historical accuracy; that there would undoubtedly be instances of overlapping or omission; and that the War Department might easily be placed in the position of making inconsistent statements, or even of permitting one of its own agencies to make direct or implied criticisms of another.

For the first named of the above purposes, the Branch maintains archives, consisting of two departments, one for written documents and maps, the other for photographs, both still and moving.

The collection of written documents includes all the original files of the Branch dealing with activities at home; a considerable amount of diplomatic material; a valuable collection of papers of the Services of Supply in France; the files of the General Purchasing Board and of the American representative on the Board of Allied Supply in Paris; the records of the Board of Ordnance and Fortification; and a considerable quantity of documents dealing with operations, including the field notes of the G. H. Q. Historical Section. The whole collection is used, not as an independent set of files, but rather as an annex and supplement to those of G. H. Q., which are set up in the same building, immediately adjacent to it.

It will be remembered that the Historical Section at G. H. Q. was the repository for documents turned in by troop units ordered home. That section's files constitute a part of G. H. Q.; for the present, at least, it is undesirable that the arrangement of G. H. Q. files be changed in any way. It is, therefore, necessary to provide for the preservation of all historical documents turned in by troop units which did not come into the hands of G. H. Q. The papers so turned in come, of course, to the Adjutant General, whose receiving and sorting office for them is in the same building with the Historical Branch. All papers not

needed for his administrative files are turned over by him to that Branch, and incorporated in its archives.

Upon receipt, documents are at once put in order and placed in steel filing cabinets reserved for the organizations to which they belong. Files which are in good order are not rearranged, but papers are often received in bad order and a certain amount of sorting is generally necessary. The standard arrangement is the natural one deduced from the Tables of Organization and the normal staff organization. Papers having been assorted, and filed according to this arrangement, the preparation of card indexes becomes a luxury rather than a necessity, and can be done at leisure. In archives, as distinguished from business files, it is seldom necessary to locate one separate paper, but rather the body of papers of a specific class dealing with a specific subject. Hence the arrangement is in itself a sufficient index. For example, the question may be asked, have you a report on examination of German prisoners at headquarters of the 5th Corps on October 8, 1918? The answer is not to look in the index for a specific document; the index, with necessary cross indexing, would almost become as voluminous as the files. It is to look at the archive register, and say, "I don't know whether we have that or not; but if we have, it is in the folder numbered 185-22.3." The 185 is the master number identifying the 5th Corps, and all papers of the corps are in the 185 group of drawers. This paper coming under military intelligence, the 2d General Staff section, its class number is 20; information of the enemy is 22; examination of prisoners is 22.3. Looking at the folder indicated, one gets all examinations of prisoners at that particular headquarters.

The general rule is, to file a document under its office of origin. But often other considerations enter. Thus, we find a field order of the 1st Corps. *Prima facie* it goes in the 1st Corps files. But this particular copy bears, we will say, a stamp showing its receipt in the 77th Division on a certain day and at a certain hour. This is an additional historical fact, and makes the paper a part of the 77th Division files.

Thus the decision as to the proper filing of a paper is fairly easy, once the paper is identified. But papers are often received in so confused a state that localization is a problem. It is forcibly brought home to anyone working on or in the archives that papers ought to be so prepared as to indicate their source, date and nature. Often headings and names were purposely omitted, to avoid possible communication of information to the enemy; but generally it is unnecessary, for this purpose, to go so far as to omit all identifying marks. Such omissions are more often due simply to haste or carelessness in preparing the papers; they are frequently unavoidable, but are always unfortunate.

Some of these papers cannot be identified at all; others may be localized by external evidence. A typical instance of this is furnished by a paper that recently turned up in a miscellaneous lot—insignificant in itself, but showing methods of work.

This paper gave the locations of the various offices of some unidentified American headquarters in some

unidentified town. The size of the headquarters suggested an army; the number of streets mentioned, a considerable town; their names, the region between Neufchateau and St. Dizier. Hence, probably First Army at Ligny-en-Barrois. To verify, an officer who was a member of the First Army Staff was consulted; he said his office had been in a building that was formerly a school; and that some artillery establishment was in the same building. The list showed the office in question in the "Ecole Maternelle," and the Ordnance office in the same building. "Order of battle confirmed."

One of the complications in arranging operations papers is found in the confused nomenclature used. We had our own system of names for the various classes of documents, with numerous variants due to the personal idiosyncrasies of commanders and staff officers; superimposed upon this were British and French systems, again with individual peculiarities of translation and usage. The possible permutations and combinations are almost infinite. For example, different units, or the same units at different times, handled the same matter in Field Orders, Operation Orders, Battle Instructions, Operations Memorandums, G-8 Orders, G-8 Memorandums, and perhaps papers with still other names. Evidently, such variations cause confusion both at the time and afterward.

The collection of maps is very good. It is kept in large cases, where the sheets may be laid flat. It includes all maps of France on all scales that were in general use during operations, and also a good collection covering Germany, especially west of the Rhine, Italy and the Balkan States. These general maps are filed in the natural territorial order. But the special maps cause trouble; barrage charts, objective and boundary maps, invisible area charts, records of enemy artillery activity, and a thousand other things. They are of every possible description, many of the utmost value, many apparently of none; but one hesitates to decide that any are worthless and discard them. Where they can be connected with any specific written document, they are filed with a reference to that document; otherwise they are filed on the same plan as independent documents, but, of course, in the large cases. The difficulty of localization, already mentioned, is much greater with maps than with written documents. A map is found without any legend or date, with weird irregular blobs of color scattered promiscuously about; or worse, a piece of tracing paper with nothing on it but a few of these blobs, and perhaps a point or two marked with co-ordinate numbers. To localize a thing like this involves considerable specialized knowledge—the location must be found, then the possible troop units determined by general knowledge of the operations there, this determination made as specific as possible by elimination, and the particular kind of map identified by personal acquaintance with that particular kind of blobs. Thus there are required a general familiarity with map systems; a pretty good knowledge of France; a pretty good acquaintance with the military operations of the war; a full understanding

of the troop and staff organization of our own forces; a general understanding of the same things for the French, English and German services; and some experience in the methods of recording different kinds of information on maps. This means practically that most of the work has to be done by an officer; a soldier or clerk requires long special training to do it satisfactorily.

A typical instance of a localization problem is found in a small tracing that turned up recently. It was evidently prepared in connection with the report of a patrol; the place was clearly indicated; it showed roads, enemy works, dispositions of hostile troops and identifications of German regiments, but nothing to indicate American troop unit, or date.

Examination of American intelligence papers showed that the regiments named belonged to a certain German division; a discrepancy or two in regimental numbering appeared, but the identification was clear. The German order of battle records showed that division in that vicinity between certain dates. The American order of battle gave the American divisions in line there between those dates. Their papers were examined, beginning with the one which seemed, from a general knowledge of the operations there, to be most probable; and a copy of a French report was soon found, giving details of the examination of a German prisoner which coincided exactly with the information on the tracing. The report did not identify the headquarters at which the prisoner was examined, nor the division which sent out the patrol; but another reference to the order of battle showed that the American division in question was at that time serving in a French corps. The localization was considered complete, and the tracing filed accordingly.

Another case. A map was found among the papers of a field artillery brigade, showing disposition of infantry troops in a sector which was occupied, at one time or another, by many American divisions. Troop units were designated only by letters; no identification or date appeared. On the back was the single word "defensive," in red pencil. There was nothing to connect the map in any way with the brigade in whose papers it was found. It was known, however, that the brigade had once served in that sector, attached to a division other than its own.

Among the papers of that division was found an order for an attack on ground just in front of that covered by the troop dispositions sketched. The field order immediately preceding this was the one under which the division had entered the sector. Referring then to the papers of the division which it relieved, there was found an "amended plan of defense" of the sector for a given date, corresponding in all respects to the map. The origin, date and purpose of the map were thus positively fixed.

The collection of photographs is very large. It now includes some 250,000, perhaps half of them taken by the Signal Corps at home and abroad, the rest unofficial. Few additions are now being made, but work is going on steadily in localizing, captioning and arranging files. Problems of localization are

not, as a rule, complicated; but in the course of the work much dead wood has been found, and many thousands of pictures have been discarded that do not belong in the files and should never have come there. The Brady collection of Civil War photographs has been taken up by the Signal Corps as a result of representations by this Branch, and work is in progress on its rearrangement and preservation. The Branch formerly exercised some of the functions of censorship of photographs, but this work was hardly within its proper sphere, and has been transferred to the Military Intelligence Division.

The original negatives of all moving picture films taken by the Signal Corps have been filed in a vault and indexed. No duties, in connection with these, other than safekeeping, are now being performed by this Branch.

As already stated, the Branch is required to make the information contained in its archives available for properly authorized use. This can be done in two ways—by bringing the investigator to the document, or bringing the document to the investigator. The first process is simple; the Branch has a room, equipped with desks, typewriting machines, etc., for the use of outside workers. Any person properly accredited is given space here, with ready access not only to the archives of the Branch, but to those of G. H. Q. and the Adjutant General, and assistance is afforded in locating information elsewhere in Washington.

The second process is slower and involves printing, which involves money. A plan has been elaborated for publishing documents, so as to cover somewhat the same field as the Records of the Civil War; and work is in progress following the precedent then set.

The plan then followed was first to collect sets of documents, and print them in very small editions. These volumes were never issued, but kept for office use only. When this collection of printed papers became fairly complete, they were entirely rearranged, by operations instead of by troop units, and the volumes with which we are familiar were compiled.

Work is in progress on the first part of this program, and some fifteen volumes are in the hands of the Public Printer, for publication as funds become available. Each volume contains a complete file of a certain class of papers of a certain unit; for example, the first volume sent in was the Field Orders of the First Army, which had already been collected and compiled in France, with all necessary special maps, and could readily be prepared for the printer.

Only those documents dealing with military operations overseas are contemplated at present. They will make nominally some 350 volumes; but, of course, in some cases a volume may be so bulky as to require division into several parts, and in many more cases several small volumes may be grouped under one cover.

The Civil War plan of regrouping has many advantages, and it may be that it will sometime be followed with these papers. But to wait until this regrouping is practicable would mean delay of years in getting out any documents at all. Hence, the volumes just

described will be issued, in limited editions, to be sure, but for general, not merely departmental, use. If, in future years, it is found desirable to take the second step, it can readily be done.

Much care is being taken to reproduce the original documents as nearly as type can do it. Errors are not corrected, and peculiarities of capitalization, punctuation and arrangement are copied.

A side issue in the archives is the maintenance of a small bureau of information for answering inquiries on historical questions. These come constantly, both from agencies of the War Department and in correspondence from outside. At times, the labor involved in securing the information sought is very material. The strength of the Branch does not permit undertaking any considerable investigation, but when specific questions are asked an effort is made either to give the information or indicate where and how it may be obtained.

The original project for historical writing, it will be remembered, was very ambitious, involving nothing less than a complete history of American participation in the war with Germany. It was restricted, however, to that one war, it being evident that it would be inadvisable for the present to devote much time to earlier ones. Demobilization brought with it a reduction of force to this Branch as to all others, and the project had to be revised.

All matters which, while having a military bearing, are primarily diplomatic or economic, were at once eliminated from consideration. This left, broadly speaking, three divisions of the work—mobilization and demobilization, including all activities in the United States; military operations abroad, and the Services of Supply abroad.

It became evident that no fixed organization could be counted on, such as to permit the preparation of a single work, covering the entire field. It was necessary to make a program which should be separable, so that any part might be taken up at any time, each study being complete in itself and at the same time fitting into the general scheme. Also, it was necessary to make the program very flexible, so that changes in detail might be made at any time without injury to the general plan.

Evidently, this meant a collection of monographs. These monographs would have to be so planned that they might pass from general surveys of a whole field, on to minute specific studies of small parts; the scheme must provide a place for narrative history of events, and for comparative study of subjects from data widely separated in time and space. Such a plan was prepared, and is now serving as the basis for any writing that is done in the Branch.

A number of papers have been prepared, of which five have been printed and the rest are awaiting allotments of funds. The contingency foreseen in the plans has occurred, however, and the force is now too small to permit much of this work. In fact, work on several papers has been interrupted by the relief of the men who had them in hand. Of course, much of their work is wasted; for it is, as a rule, very difficult or even impossible for one investigator to



take up and carry on the unfinished work of another; but all their notes are carefully preserved, and efforts will be made to complete these papers when men are available, before taking up new subjects.

The newest department of activity of the Branch bids fair to become an important factor in the work of the War Department. This is the supervision of the historical work done by other bureaus or services.

To initiate this work a meeting was held in the offices of the Branch at which there were present representatives from all separate branches and services of the War Department. The purpose of the supervision contemplated was explained, and a brief statement of the historical standards to be applied was made. The basis was laid for an apportionment of work, certain classes of subjects being designated as within the sphere of the Historical Branch of the General Staff, and others as proper to be treated by the various special historical offices.

The outline of a general program for any service was marked out, and each service invited to submit a special program covering its own field. Many of these have been submitted, consultations held on all doubtful points, and a definite form determined upon.

By frequent informal visits, the Branch keeps in touch with what the services are doing, and gives advice and assistance whenever required. The best of understanding has been established, and most of the business is transacted informally, without paper work.

An illustration of this process is found in a manuscript recently turned in by one of the services which contemplates a considerable amount of historical work. The program had been agreed upon as above described, and the Branch was in touch, by informal visits, with the general state of the work. Certain introductory parts being in final form, these were transmitted through official channels to the Historical Branch for review.

A number of points open to criticism were noted, and the draft of a formal memorandum embodying the criticism was prepared. The editor of the manuscript was then asked to come in for a discussion of the draft. He accepted most of the criticisms, which were written in such form as to make it easy for him to do so, and suggested that certain ones be mentioned only in general terms in the official memorandum, the detailed specification to be handed to him personally. This was done, and it was found possible, in forwarding the official memorandum, to note thereon the full concurrence of the service concerned.

Not only this, but the standards of the Branch are now more fully understood by that service, and future manuscripts from it will doubtless conform more nearly to them. And, equally important, the convenience of the personal conference having become more apparent, this Branch may hope to have even more intimate connection with the historical work of that service before it gets into the form of manuscript.

The logical result of this kind of work, if it continues for several years, should be to secure uniformity and coherence of program for all work in the Depart-

ment having any historical aspect, and to establish a sound critical basis for such work.

One other line of activity may be mentioned. Close association has been established with two foreign historical sections, the French and the Canadian—in the former case through a representative of the Branch stationed in Paris, in the latter by an exchange of personal visits and by occasional correspondence. Efforts for similar connection with two other foreign countries have been made, but as yet no definite and permanent relation has been established. The co-operation secured is in all cases thorough and cordial.

Of course, the question of the future status of the Historical Branch of the General Staff is bound up with all the general questions of staff organization, and he would be a bold man who would venture a prediction. But at least it may be said that during the past three years the foundation has been laid for a permanent bureau of military history, capable of indefinite development, and a large body of experience accumulated as to how such a bureau may be operated. In what direction and to what extent such development is to be made, lies "on the knees of the gods."

Most persons will be interested in an article in the February *Forum*, entitled, "Blue Laws, Past and Future," which, despite its title, considers only the rigid personal propriety and moral laws passed in New England between 1634 and 1679, noting how few of them accomplished their purposes.

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CHICAGO, ILLINOIS



# Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

## Part III. Syllabus for Ninth Grade Study of American Industries

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF JOSEPH SCHAFER FOR THE COMMITTEE BY FRANCES M. MOREHOUSE, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA HIGH SCHOOL, AND LECTURER IN AMERICAN HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER, ENGLAND.

### TO TEACHERS

This syllabus of ninth year work in social science, which is a study of ten leading industries in the United States, has six objects:

1. To furnish the means of giving students a fund of useful facts about the economic world in which they live. These facts give the basis of all further work; it is not to be expected that boys and girls will be able to think clearly and to good purpose until they have thought-material out of which freely to generalize and abstract. Therefore, no excuse or apology is offered for making the teaching of facts an important part of the work.

2. To show how dependent every human being is upon the production of the economic world; to build up the conception of social and economic interdependence without which no one understands the world as it is.

3. To give a basis for teaching the simpler facts and terms of the study of economics. The more advanced ones are left to the work of the twelfth year.

4. To show the close relationship between economic life, and social and political life.

5. To develop a social spirit in the students—a sympathy with all workers and a friendly and open attitude toward all legitimate enterprise.

6. To give pupils a firm grasp of the developmental process, on the economic side, by which the present United States was created.

In form the syllabus is a topical outline, having a rather full list of references for each industry treated. Teachers should note that they are not expected to teach everything given, but to adapt the course to the needs of their own communities and schools, utilizing what fits the particular situation. The best references for the average group of students have been indicated by an asterisk; the general list of references gives the library equipment which schools ought to assemble as soon as possible. Others are to be found in public libraries or occasional school collections. For schools without access to libraries, the texts and reference books starred will give material for profitable work.

No time schedule is given, because the author believes that the work cannot possibly be taught successfully without careful planning on the part of the teacher or supervisor. This involves the making of a plan book, with a time schedule and with provision for those modifications required to adapt the general plan to local conditions in the particular school. Teachers should note that the order puts the old, simple industries first, and advances gradually into the more intricate ones dependent upon modern inventions and conditions and showing great intricacy of relationship. A fair amount of time should be allowed for

all, but, naturally, most time should be allotted to those industries which can be illustrated by concrete object-lessons—by visits to farms, factories and offices. The generalization and interpretation into economic law should, of course, come where interest and illustration are best; much of this material can, if it seems best, be shifted from one topic to another. For instance, the relation of size of farms to economic democracy and social stability can be shown equally well by reference to the cotton plantations of the South, or to the wheat farms of the Northwest; and, where the students can be shown the workings of any law by reference to local conditions, that law should be taught at that point.

The author and the committee feel that certain directions for teaching should be understood to belong with this syllabus; it will not work as a practical guide without adherence to these general suggestions:

1. The work must be planned ahead. The syllabus alone is not intended as a ready-made recipe for a course in industries. It will have failed if it does away, in any degree, with the careful, individual planning of each teacher using it. No single detailed plan will fit all, or even a majority, of American schools and communities.

2. Adapt the order, emphasis and method to the children and the community in which the work is being given. Adapt the readings and topics assigned to the ability of individual students. Note that some references are to articles and books very simply written, and of non-technical nature; others are suitable only for intelligent children, who can read and understand grown-folks' literature.

3. Use local materials and situations as much as possible for illustration. Make visits to local plants, telling the class in advance what to watch for. Such visits should not be junketing trips, but serious lesson-learning exercises in which definite problems are assigned and from which results are expected. Have the class members bring newspaper clippings to illustrate points studied in class. Use all the pictures obtainable. These pictures should be filed away for future use whenever possible.

4. Leave out judiciously. Do not try to cover all the ground outlined in this syllabus; the syllabus is supposed to contain more suggested material than any one class can use in any one year. Do not be afraid to tell the parts of the topics which for any reason cannot be assigned for student reports. Interesting accounts by the teacher are among the most effective means of teaching—providing the students are held responsible for the facts thus delivered to them. Drill thoroughly on the emphasized points. Decide what is important and then assure yourself that your students will carry it with them to their graves.

There are certain integrating factors in the succession of topics which may be listed here, although it is hoped that they are clearly indicated in the body of the syllabus. These factors should unify the whole year's work, no matter what topic may be under consideration at any one time. They are the big results that the year's work should give:

1. The economic placement of the industries—the classification into a type or into a set of types, as in the case of the elaborately integrated industries. This is important because it is basic for clear thinking in the terms of economics, an important asset later on.

2. The outstanding facts of each industry as it has developed in America are emphasized. This is partly to insure a certain amount of useful, conventional informedness, but more particularly to give a basis for vocational direction.

3. The human side of each industry is presented. No other production is so important as the production of a healthy, sane, sincere, reliable race of people; therefore, the effect of an industry upon the people connected with it is of prime importance.

4. Going a step further, the economic, social and political bearings of the industry are shown. The interrelation of these several aspects of life, and the impossibility of man's living unto himself, should be shown over and over again.

5. Each study should be so taught as to yield its share in the socialization of the students—in the building up of fair-mindedness, sympathy and breadth of view. It should be an antidote to class feeling, to sectionalism, to every form of harmful prejudice. It should distill into finer character-quality, not through preaching, but through the sincere interest bred in the manifold strivings of men.

The author wishes to acknowledge the invaluable co-operation of Miss Elizabeth Lynskey, whose reference work has added usability to the outlines.

To avoid repetition, references have been given, as a rule, but once; teachers and students are advised that the amount of material will be found to be much more than is indicated in the printed lists under the sub-topics, as a majority of the periodical articles treat several phases of each main topic. In such cases, the article is referred to only the first time it is relevant, unless it is desired to call attention to it especially when it may be repeated.

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#### I. FISHING AND TRAPPING

Introduction: Hunting and fishing are extractive industries in which man does not prepare the commodity, but simply appropriates it if he can. The processes of manufacture after the fish or fur is secured are simple; the product requires a minimum of manufacturing effort to make it ready for the market. Fishing and trapping represent in the modern world a survival of primitive modes of production, which are now passing from the extractive to the genetic stage of their existence—from conditions which require a great deal of space to those in which the same or greater production can be secured in less space and with less risk. In this respect they illustrate the universal transformation of industries which must take place to make them efficient and sufficient under conditions of increased population and fixed land supply.

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Harvey, C. M.: "Fur Traders as Empire Builders," *Atl.*, 103:298-9.
  2. An incentive for early American adventure.
 

Becker: "Beginnings," etc., 152-6.

Laut, A. C.: 1-8.
  3. The French fur trade, centering toward the St. Lawrence.
 

Chittenden: 1-2.

Laut: 50-71, Ch. V., "French and English on the Bay."

Peterson: 5.

Thwaites: 38-48, 124-29, 132-35; also, Essay in serial, and "Ec. Forces in Am. Hist.," 79-97.
  4. The English fur trade of the U. S., centering in St. Louis.
 

Chittenden: 105-12.

Peterson: 45.

Turner, F. J.: "Rise of the New West," 115-27; also, Ch. XVII, "Ec. & Social Forces in Am. Hist." Thwaites: 151-156.
  5. Present trapping and fur-trading conditions.
 

"Fur News": 1916-17.

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——, *U. S. Farmers' Bulletin* 1079: "Laws Relating to Fur-Bearing Animals, 1919."

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Peterson: 45-47.

——, *U. S. Dept. of Agri. Bulletin* 301, 4ff.

"Uncle Sam, Trapper," *Outlook*, 112:71-2 (St. Louis center).

"Uncle Sam, Trapper": 587, letter from G. A. Clark.

"Furs from the Far Places," Powell, Alex.: *Everybody's*, 24:60-61.

7. Dressing and sorting processes.

Adams: "Commercial Geography," 90.

Peterson: 47-60.

"Silver Fox Farming in Eastern North America," *U. S. Dept. of Agri. Bul.* 301, 31-2.

"Furs, True and False," *Lit. Dig.*, 48:317.

"Skunk Culture for Profit," 96-104.

#### II. Economic Problems

1. Monopoly control as illustrated in the history of fur-trading. The custom of granting monopolies still held when white men began to draw upon the riches of America. The part of capital, the characteristics of the labor supply, the producing conditions, and the results on the price of the product are well illustrated in this old monopoly.
 

Chittenden: 17-19.

"The Settlers' Fight for the Fur Lands," Robert Dunn, *Everybody's*, 24:262-74.

"Furs from the Far Places," *Everybody's*, 24:57-9.

Laut: 35-50 (description of feudal methods).

Harvey: "Fur Traders as Empire Builders," *Atl. Mag.*, 103:301-2.
2. The disappearing wild beast and the end of trapping.
 

Bogart: 54-5.

Howard, S. H.: "A Little Tragedy of Waste," *Collier's*, 46, 26 (drama).

——, "Woman's Fashions and the Slaughter of Animals," *Review of Reviews*, 43:721-2.

——, "The Present High Price of Furs and Its Cause," *Rev. of Rev.*, 44:629-31.
3. Permanent fur production—the fur farm. Possibilities and accomplishment.
 

Chapman, W. Y.: "Fox Frenzy," *Ind.*, Feb. 13, 1913, 359-62.

Jones, E. L.: "Propagation of Fur-Bearing Animals," 114-24, in *Report of Alaskan Investigation*.

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Muller, Sara S.: "Silver Fox Farming," *Outlook*, 113:491-4.

Peterson: 29-44.

"Fish, Fur and Forest, and a Few Other Things," *Outlook*, 100:675-83.

"Fur Farming in Alaska," *U. S. Bureau of Fisheries Doc.* 834.

"Silver Fox Farming in Eastern North America," *U. S. Dept. of Agri. Bul.* 301, map 7.

"Skunk Culture for Profit," 21-4.

"Fur Farming for Profit" (188 pp.).

"Fur Farms in Canada," *Lit. Dig.*, 47:679.

"The New Industry of Fur Farming," *Rev. of Rev.*, 57:208-9.

"Interesting People," *American Mag.*, 33-4, June, 1913.

#### III. Social Aspect

1. Relation of French and English trappers to the Indians. A significant contrast is seen in the fact that the French lived with the Indians, intermarrying with

them, while the English did this much less, but brought their own families from England, scouting westward from settled homes, usually on farms, in English settlements. ("The subject may be omitted in favor of more important ones, as it is not germane to the work.")

Becker: "Beginnings," etc., 144-5, 152-6.

Bogart: 41.

Chittenden: cit., 8-21.

2. Another social aspect—the hard and unsocial life of trappers. The abnormally lonely life of the trapper was associated with his means of livelihood; it should be contrasted with the normal life of a fur-farmer. What is the effect of changing an industry from an extractive to a genetic one?

Henning, Arthur: "Following the Fur Trail," *Outlook*, 94: 692-700.

Powell, E. Alex.: "Furs from the Far Places," *Everybody's*, 24: 53-60.

#### IV. Political Aspects

The part of trappers in opening up the Northwest.

Becker: "Beginning," etc., 206-11.

Bogart: 31, 49, 54, 172.

Laut: 103-123, 703-103. French and English Canadian companies.

Dunn, Robt.: "The Settler's Fight for the Fur Lands," *Everybody's*, 24: 263-74.

Peterson: 7-25.

Turner, F. J.: "Rise of the New West," 110-127, map 115.

#### II. LUMBERING

Introduction: Like fishing and trapping, lumbering is an extractive industry, which is in process of being transformed into a genetic industry. It is of peculiar importance in America, as the existence of a great store of wood of fine quality and varied utility made Americans great users of wood. Wooden houses, for instance, are far more common in this country than in Europe. Wood has been used for almost every conceivable purpose for which fiber and substance are useful. Now that the original supply is running short, making all wood products expensive, the problem is to insure a permanent supply.

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- I. Areas and Supply in America (these areas necessarily overlap in varying degree)

Waters: 279-80.

General, Boerker, Introduction.

"When Our Resources Are Gone," *Ind.*, 74: 555-6.

"Our Good Lumber Not All Gone," *H. S. Graves*, *Lit. Dig.*, June 12, 1915.

Van Hise: "Problems of National Forestry," *Ind.*, 74: 64, map, 211-13.

1. The coniferous wood and naval supplies.

Allen: 264-70.

Bogart: 302, 384.

Harper, R. H. M.: "The Coniferous Forests of Eastern North America," *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, 85: 338-61.

Lamm, L. M.: "The Alaskan Forests," *Outlook*, 112: 679-82.

Van Hise: 209-10.

Waters: "Essentials of Agriculture," 280-81.

—, "Forest Products, of the U. S.," *Sci. Am.*, 75: 14.

2. The hardwoods and their uses.

Allen: 272-3.

Chapman: 14-15.

Van Hise: 209.

Waters: 281-2.

"Forest Products of the United States," *Sci. Am.*, 75: 14, diagram and map 16.

3. The soft woods and their uses.

Allen: 270-2.

Chapman: 14-15.

Van Hise: 208.

Waters: 281-2.

"Forest products of the U. S.," *Sci. Am. S.*, 75: 14-16.

—, "The Alaskan Forests," *Outlook*, 112: 679-80.

4. The imported woods.

Allen: 264-8.

#### II. Development of the Industry

1. Colonial lumbering and uses.

a. Shipbuilding.

Becker: 168.

Bishop & Keller: 338-42.

Bogart: 49, 39, 51, 2, 62, 106, 208.

Johnson: 124-6 and 234.

b. Lumber and naval stores.

Becker.

Bogart: 39, 39-50, 162.

Bishop & Keller: 246.

c. Carpentry.

Bogart: 49.

d. Cabinet-making.

Bogart: 58.

2. The successive treasures of timber exploited as the white man moved west.

Allen: 264-8.

Bishop & Keller: 246-9.

Bogart: 279-81, 312, 329.

Dorrance, J. G.: "The Woods, the Mill and the Factory," *Sci. Am.*, 114: 382-3.

Robbins, E. C.: "The Lumber Decline in the Northwest," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53: 586-8.

3. The succession of methods.

As the forest-cutters moved westward in their tree-mining, they changed from the hand methods of colonial days to the use of elaborate and costly machines of ingenious makes, which handle the wood quickly and skillfully from its cutting to its transfer, finished, to the store yard of the lumber company. Note the good illustration of the principle of variable proportions of the elements of production—in the early days, there was much labor, but little capital (machinery) per unit of production; later, the proportion of labor has been less, but the outlay in costly machinery (capital) has been greater per unit of production.

Allen: 256-64.

Britt, A.: "At the Crossing," *Outing*, 72: 178.

Sample: 350-1.

—, "The Woods, the Mill and the Factory," *Sci. Am.*, 114: 382-3.

—, "Logging with a Motor and Truck," *Sci. Am.*, 108: 586.

—, "Logging by Electricity," *Lit. Dig.*, 45: 371.

—, "Story of Paper from the Nile Reed to the Rag-Bag," *Lit. Dig.*, 63: 93-8.

Mills: 1-16, 30-2.

#### III. Economic Problems

1. Supply. At present there is a serious shortage in paper, boxes, articles manufactured from wood and building materials, due largely to exploitation under private control.

Boerker: Introduction, XIII-XIV.

Bogart: 301.

Graves, H. S.: "Forests of Usefulness," *Wld's Wk.*, 26: 696-8.

"The Problems of National Forestry," *Ind.*, 74: 641.

Sullivan, W. H.: "The Present Status and Future of the Lumber Industry of the South," *Outlook*, 122: 126-7.

- Van Hise: 209, 212-3.  
 Mills: 30.  
 —, "Spanish Cedar," *Sci. Am.*, 114:372-3.  
 —, "Scarcity of True Boxwood," *Sci. Am.*, 110: 25.  
 —, "Forest Products of the U. S.," *Sci. Am.*, 75:14-16.  
 —, "The Paper-Pulp Problem," *Sci. Am.*, 114:74.  
 —, "Lumber as an Important Factor in the South's Prosperity," *Outlook*, 122:300-1.  
 Walker, T. B.: "Timber Conservation as Related to Reciprocity," *Review of Reviews*, 43:400-3.
2. A permanent supply through scientific forestry. Forestry schools.  
 Bogart: 302.  
 Chapman: 37.  
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 Pinchot, Gifford: "The Training of a Forester."  
 Simpson, T. H.: "Restoring Chinese Forests," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:337-40.  
 Van Hise: 223-6.  
 —, "Our National Forests," *Sci. Am. S.*, 75: 90-1.
3. Soil-conserving function. Relation to destructive floods.  
 Allen: 281-2.  
 Chapman: 19-20 and 72-4.  
 Pressey, H. A.: "Water Powers of the South," *Rev. of Rev.*, 41:71-74.  
 Van Hise: 245-53.  
 Waters: 282-3.  
 Fosbery, L. A.: "Climatic Influence of Forests," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 75:246-7.  
 —, "Water Powers in Danger," *Outlook*, 111: 112.  
 —, "The White Mountain Watershed," *Outlook*, 111:111.  
 —, "An Appalachian National Forest," *Outlook*, 97:374.  
 —, "Our National Forests," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 75:91.  
 —, "Keeping the Soil Well Fed," *Ind.*, 92:185-6.
4. By-products of lumbering.  
 a. Waste in past now somewhat remedied.  
 Bogart: 329.  
 Graves, H. S.: "The Fight Against Forest Fires," *Nat. Geog.*, 28:669-77.  
 Lovejoy, P. S.: "For the Land's Sake," *Coun-try Gentleman*, July 26, 1919.  
 Record, S. J.: "Our Present and Future Sources of Vegetable Tannin," *Sci. Am.*, 114: 580-1.  
 Van Hise: 218-19.  
 —, "What Really Becomes of Our Trees?" *Ind.*, 75:diagr., 109.  
 b. Possibilities. All American industries owe much to the packing plants, which set the whimsical standard of "using all but the squeal." This standard is more than a humorous illustration of Yankee ingenuity and thrift; it is one of deep righteousness. Here is an industry in which to-day the old wastefulness is gradually being supplanted by improved methods of economical utilization. How long will it be before the sawmills can make a boast as good as the packers?  
 Allen: 275-81.  
 Dorrance, J. G.: "Wood Wastes—Results and Remedies," *Sci. Am.*, 114:426-7.  
 Lamm, L. M.: "Utilizing Lumber Waste," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:588-9.  
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 Crawford, R. P.: "Utilization of Old Railroad Ties," *Sci. Am.*, 115:249.
5. Maintaining the economic balance—cutover lands. Birds and forest preserves.  
 Allen: 273-6.  
 Allen, E. T.: "Conservation That Pays Its Way," *World's Work*, 26:310-15.  
 Bogart: 301-2.  
 Chapman: 46-57, 74-6.  
 Boerker: 6.  
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 —, "The Government and Our National Timber," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 75:126-7.  
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 —, "The American 'Home Secretary,'" *World's Work*, 26:403-5.  
 —, "Cattle and Lumber," *Outlook*, 97:373.
6. Markets and transportation, e. g., British colonial lumber.  
 Allen: 273-6.  
 Bogart: 312, 318, 329, 331, 333.  
 Semple: 344, 349, 351, 355, 363.  
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 —, "A Blow at Trade Blacklists," *Lit. Dig.*, 46: 218.  
 —, "Some Economic Factors Influencing the Forestry Situation," *Pop. Sci.*, 181-6.  
 —, "Europe's Great Need of Lumber After the War," *Lit. Dig.*, 53:1386.  
 —, "Shall We Export Lumber?" *Lit. Dig.*, 62:24.

## IV. Social Problems

1. The lumberjack.  
 Allen: 253-7.  
 Britt, A.: "At the Crossing," *Outing*, 72:175-7.  
 Dorrance, J. G.: "The Woods, the Mill and the Factory," *Sci. Am.*, 111:322-3.  
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 "Descriptions of Occupations," U. S. Dept. of Labor, *Logging Camps and Sawmills*, 1918.  
 —, "Pictures," *Outing*, 72:16-32.
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 —, "Luxuries for the Lumberjack," *Tech. World*, 23:220.  
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 See also articles of Carleton H. Parker, *Atl. M.*, 1917-1919, *passim*.
3. The paper supply and popular intelligence.  
 While suffering housewives may complain of the "plague of paper" that exists with cheap pulp products, most people are glad that paper is plentiful and cheap. There is a real relation between the price of paper and the quality of general intelligence. Expensive paper makes expensive books and magazines and fewer newspapers. But the soft-wood sources for pulp are disappearing fast; what shall be done?  
 Bishop & Keller: 252-258.  
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 —, "Recent Paper Statistics," *Sci. Am.*, 114:565.  
 —, "Some New Paper-Making Materials," *Sci. Am.*, 84:373.

- , "Press Hit by Paper Famine," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:18.  
 —, "America Starving Canada's Press," *Lit. Dig.*, 64:97.  
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 a. Ayres, P. W.: "The New Forest Reserves in the Eastern Mountains," *Rev. of Rev.*, 50:46-59, map 47-8.  
 Boerker: XIX.  
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 —, "The Fight for the Nation," *Outlook*, 105:693-5.  
 —, "State vs. National Control of Public Forests," *Sci. Am.*, 109:176.  
 —, "State vs. Federal Control of National Forests," *Sci. Am.*, 108:134.  
 Towne: 314-5.

#### V. Political Problems

1. Roosevelt and the conservation idea. Policy of the national department.  
 The conservation of forests began in 1891 with the setting aside of a tract of land which might not be sold, but should remain permanently government property. Additional tracts were set aside from time to time, but not until Roosevelt's administration did conservation of forests become a definite policy. The reasons for conservation and the far-reaching effects should be emphasized; also, the duty of citizens toward these common treasures on the public lands.  
 Allen: 283-4.  
 Boerker: 6-29 (diagrams), 30-120 (methods of administ.), 170-232 (sale and rental).  
 Herrick: 511.  
 Page, A. W.: "A Fight for Conservation," *World's Work*, 2:13607-11.  
 Van Hise: 1-14, 212-16.  
 Waters: 83-4.  
 Young: 260-61, 262.  
 —, "A Victory for Conservation," *Outlook*, 98: May 27, 1911.  
 2. Forestation and forest protection—the profession of the ranger. State maintenance and economy. The neglect of forests brings on two great calamities—flood and fire.  
 Allen: 282.  
 Boerker: 120-70.  
 Chapman: 55-66.  
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#### III. WHEAT

##### I. Introduction

An industry that from prehistoric times has depended upon man for production, and the greatest food in the world. For the first time we study a genetic industry—one in which men control the natural increase of a plant for the sake of using the surplus over seed requirements for food. Wheat owes its supreme position among world foods to the high percentage of nutriment and the kind of nutriment contained in the seed kernel. The close relation between wheat production and population should be emphasized, as well as the typical development of a staple food crop in successive periods of culture.

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 Moore & Halligan: 67-70.  
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 II. The Successive Areas of Wheat Production  
 Allen: 117-20.  
 Bailey, W. B.: "Our Wheat Supply," *Ind.*, 70:467.  
 Carver: 113.  
 Crookes, Sir Wm.: 16-30.  
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Buller: "Early History of Wheat Growing in Manitoba," Ch. I, Essays on Wheat, 1-34.

### III. Successive Methods

#### 1. Agriculture.

- Allen: 107-9.  
 Edgar: "U. S. Methods," 97-103.  
 Crooke, Sir Wm.: "The Wheat Problem," 34-51.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 190-203.  
 Moore & Halligan: 70-73.  
 R. H. Moulton: "200,000 Acres and Not a Single Horse," *Everybody's*, 41:47.  
 Ten Eyck: Chs. II-XIV, 15-163.  
 Waters: 162.  
 —, "Harvesting 8,000,000 Kansas Acres," Lit. Dig., 49:37.  
 —, "To Grow Wheat in Arid Lands," Lit. Dig., 49:230.

#### 2. Manufacturing.

##### The making of flour.

- Hand era: Indian method—the quern.  
 Allen: 107.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 144-9.  
 Bishop & Keller: 60.  
 Edgar: 131-48.

##### The mill-stone and water-power mill.

- Allen: 111-2.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 149-50.  
 Edgar: 148-155.

##### The roller process and steam.

- Bengston & Griffith: 150-53.  
 Edgar: 155-170.  
 Buller: "The Flour Mills of Western Canada," Essays on Wheat, 134-5.

The flour cities. The relation of invention to location. The introduction of modern European methods of milling into Minneapolis, almost simultaneously with the introduction of (water) power turbines.

- Bengston & Griffith: 152-66.  
 Edgar: 155-172.  
 Husband, Joseph: "The Mills," *Atlantic*, 113: 836-8.  
 Lescoghier, D. D.: "Some Work and Hazards That Go Into a Loaf of Bread," *Survey*, 26: 804-8.  
 Semple: 356-60, 370, map 368.  
 —, "The Price of the Loaf," *Outlook*, 93: 206-14.  
 —, "Flour Testing," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 72: 337.  
 —, "Hungry Bread," Lit. Dig., 48: 753.

### IV. Economic Problems

1. Transportation. Note that cost of transportation must be added to initial cost of production in finding the cost to the consumer. Show why wheat can be raised in new countries and shipped to old countries at a lower cost than that of raising it in the old country. Illustrate with the story of the Corn Laws of Great Britain.

- By pack and ship.  
 Bishop & Keller: 291-7.  
 By canal flat boat.  
 Bishop & Keller: 304-16.  
 By railroad.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 134-7.  
 Bishop & Keller: 297-301.  
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 —, "Who Handles the Wheat?" *Outlook*, 116: 473-3.  
 —, "Moving the Wheat Crop—Are There Cars Enough?" Lit. Dig., 49: 284.  
 By ships—new routes, world movements and international relations.  
 Allen: 117.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 137-43.  
 Bishop & Keller: 332-36.

2. The permanent wheat supply. Malthus thought that population would outstrip the food supply of the

world, unless checked by wars, famines and plagues. Modern economists who have studied the subject think that food can be made to keep up with population, but that it will take care and thought and scientific management. Such production depends on:

##### Rotation of crops.

- Allen: 115-6, 122.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 115-16.  
 Carver: 234-9.  
 Moore & Halligan: 75-6.  
 Ten Eyck: 107-8.  
 Warren: "Farm Management."  
 Waters: 164.

##### Other agricultural methods.

- Bengston & Griffith: "Gives Modern Methods," 1-98, 109-13, 113-9.  
 Ten Eyck: 108-115.  
 Van Hise: 302, 323, 349.  
 McDonald, Wm.: "A Rainless Wheat—19th Century," 73: 1320-31.  
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 Waters: 165-8.  
 "American Harvesting Machinery," *Sci. Am.*, 101: 437-40.

Assured price. Price-fixing is an old device, never very successful, by which governments seek to correct abnormal conditions or stimulate production when it has been reduced by some disorder or some change in methods. The futility of interference with economic law is the lesson that distills from a study of price-fixing; but its usefulness as a temporary expedient should also be shown.

- Allen: 110, 116-7.  
 Bengston & Griffith: 119-21.  
 —, "Is Wheat Too Cheap?" Lit. Dig., 56: 18-9.  
 —, "Our Daily Bread," Lit. Dig., 50: 177-8.  
 —, "Prices of Wheat and Cotton," *Outlook*, 119: 617-8.  
 —, "Too Much or Not Enough Wheat?" Lit. Dig., 61: 14-5.  
 —, "Our National Wheat Corporation," Lit. Dig., 55: 12.  
 —, "What Happened to Wheat?" *New Rep.*, 14: 14.  
 —, "Wheat at High Prices," *Ind.*, 90: 304.  
 —, "Another Great Wheat Crop," *Ind.*, 82: 124.  
 —, "The Supply of Wheat," *Ind.*, 81: 336.  
 —, "What a Bumper Crop Means," *Outl.*, 107: 580-1.  
 —, "Our Great Wheat Crop," *Nation*, 99: 84-5.  
 —, "Winter Wheat and Prosperity," Lit. Dig., 48: 969-70.  
 —, "Why Wheat Is High," Lit. Dig., 50: 3445.  
 —, "Wheat Seized in Canada," *Ind.*, 84: 449-85.

### V. Social Problems

1. Size of wheat farms, especially with relation to the social life of farmers.

- Bengston & Griffith: 107-9.  
 Carver: "Principles," 335-59, 361-77, 239-56 (size discussed).  
 Galpin: "Rural Life," 66-100 (*Str. of Pur. Soc.*), 176-314 (photos).  
 Grim: 16-30, 77-92.  
 Nicholson, W.: "Farmer of the Middle West," *Scribner's*, 63: 385-404.  
 Ten Eyck: 123.  
 Warren: "Farm Management," 239-69 graph.

2. The farmer and the hired man.

- Barber, M. A.: "The Recollections of a Hired Man," *Carver's Readings*, 147-57.  
 Crissey, F.: "White Lights and a Lean Larder," *Sat. Eve. Post*, 192: 16-17, May 29, 1920.  
 Davis, C. L.: "Kansan at Large," *Atlantic*, 124: 465-71, 641-8.  
 Grim: 71-3.

Warren: "Farm Management," 330-54.

—, "The Wheat Crop and Farm Labor," *Rev. of Rev.*, 57:298.

—, "The Wheat Crop, Labor and Foreign Finance," *Nation*, 103:161-2.

—, "Problem of the Hired Man on the Farm," *Lit. Dig.*, 65:105-9.

—, "Farm Life and Labor," *Ind.*, 99:278-9.

### 3. Tenant farming discussed under cotton.

## VI. Political Problems

### 1. Hinging on production.

Federal Reserve and Farm Loan Systems. Because American farmers are now passing through a transition period, abandoning the large-scale land-skimming methods, which require much labor, for the intensive farming (either large or small scale), which requires much capital, they find themselves in dire need of money. Their land is good security, and there is capital enough in the country to supply them; but until recently there was no means of bringing the farmer, who needs cash, into touch with the capitalist, who wants a good investment. The government has now met this situation with the two systems of the Federal Reserve, which controls the inflation and contraction of the currency, and the Farm Loan, which furnishes money to farmers with which they may make needed improvements.

Carver: "Principles of Political Economy" (1919), 314-17.

Collins, Paul V.: "The Rural Credits Law as Enacted," *Rev. of Rev.*, 54:353-4.

Colliers, J. R.: "How Wall Street Tills the Soil," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 82:28-31.

Herrick, M. T.: "Bankers and Farmers, Dealers in Pork and Beans," *Outlook*, 116:21; Herrick: "Econ. Hist.," 525-8; "Federal Farm Loan Act," *Atlantic*, 119:222f.

Hill, James L.: "The Death of the Mortgage," *Rev. of Rev.*, 58:305.

Magruder: 183-7.

Merriam, Jas. R.: "Six Per Cent. Money for Farmers," *World's Work*, 31:523-6.

Moss, R. W.: "What the Farmers Need," *Ind.*, 83:15-16.

—, "The Crop and the Credit," *Collier's*, 48:18-9.

—, "The Country Bank and the Harvest," *Lit. Dig.*, 65:624.

—, "Agrarian Reorganization," *New Rep.*, 13:330-4.

—, "Cheaper Money for the Farmer," *Lit. Dig.*, 53:236-37.

—, "Farm Loan Act Under Way," *Lit. Dig.*, 53:445-6.

—, "Farm Loan Bill in Words of One Syllable," *Outlook*, 114:69-70.

—, "Uncle Sam to Carry the Mortgage," *Lit. Dig.*, 52:1441-2.

### 2. Hinging on transportation—international relations.

Collins, P. V.: "Farming and a World Crisis," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:463, 529-38.

Allen: Map, 118.

Edgar: 172-91 (tariffs).

"Essays on Wheat": 65, 68, 118-30.

Taylor: 129-35.

"Germany's Bread Deficit," *Lit. Dig.*, 47:805.

Bishop and Keller: 352-362.

#### Inland waterways.

Bishop & Keller: 335-6, 351-2.

Harrington, J. W.: "Give Us Back Our Canals," *Rev. of Rev.*, 58:295-304.

McDonald, W.: "Question of Inland Waterways," *Nation*, 663-6.

#### Railroad and elevator control.

The close relation between wheat-raising and wheat-transportation has already been shown. If it is desired, a more technical study of the matter of the relation between railroad control and the bread and butter of the country can be inserted here. Emphasis, of course, should be upon

the effect of control on rates and promptness of transfer, the factors which affect markets. Many of the articles are advanced for ninth-year students; the teacher should read them and explain the matter simply to the students. In a majority of cases the whole matter can be dealt with best by means of informal talks, as in the study of the Non-partisan League which follows. Some teachers will think it wise to leave out these studies altogether, especially as they will be dealt with in American history and twelfth-year Problems of Democracy.

Allen: 118.

Dunn, S. O.: "Production Waits on Railroad Legislation," *Rev. of Rev.*, 60:591-4.

Hines, W. D.: "Inside Facts of Government Control of Railroads," *Ind.*, 102:466-7.

Kahn, O. H.: "What American Railroads Need," *World's Work*, 3:450-6.

Woolley, R. W.: "Why Unscramble the Railroads?" *Ind.*, 100:119.

—, "Railroad Labor Reaching for the Throttle," *Lit. Dig.*, 62:9-11.

—, "Billion More for the Railroads," *Lit. Dig.*, 61:19-20.

—, "Transportation Act, 1920," *Outlook*, 124:664-7.

—, "New Problems to Face When the Railroads Go Back," *Lit. Dig.*, 64:11-13.

—, "Our Railway Problem," *Outlook*, 123:564-5.

—, "New Railroad Law," *Lit. Dig.*, 64:16-17.

*World's Work*, 39:547-52.

—, "Railway Bill," *Outlook*, 124:363-4.

#### Elevators.

Bengston & Griffith: 122-35.

"Who Handles the Wheat?" *Outlook*, 116:472-3.

### 3. Non-partisan League. This material is too abstract for children to cover alone. The following references are given for the teacher, that she may remould their contents and present them, if at all, in informal talks. It gives a present-day illustration of the recurring agrarian movement, a factor of great importance in American history.

Gillette, J. M.: "North Dakota Harvest of the Non-partisan League," *Survey*, 411:753-60.

Harger, C. M.: "Middle West Peace Problems," *Atlantic*, 123:555-60.

MacDonald, W.: "North Dakota's Experiment," *Nation*, 108:420-2.

Merz, C.: "Non-partisan League," *New Rep.*, 22:333-8.

—, "Politics, Bank Explosions," etc., *Lit. Dig.*, 64:626.

—, "North Dakota's Revolution," *Lit. Dig.*, 60:11-14.

—, "Arthur C. Townley, The Radical Autocrat of North Dakota," *Lit. Dig.*, 61:62-4.

## IV. MAIZE OR INDIAN CORN

### I. Introduction

The leading American contribution, next to the potato, to the world's food supply. A new element in food economy.

—, "To Straighten Out Crooked Plant Names," *I. D.*, 46:1122, May 17, 1913.

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Montgomery, E. G.: "The Corn Crops." Macmillan, 1913.

"Corn Growing, Breeding, Judging, Feeding and Marketing." Waterloo, Iowa, Pub. Co., 1915. A technical guide, somewhat advanced for general class use.

Waters, N. J.: "Essentials of Agriculture." Riverside Press, 1915.

Warren: "Elements of Agriculture." Macmillan, 1910.

## II. Past History of Maize

1. Cultivation under Indians, who were in the condition of hoe culture when found by white men.
  - Allen: 134-5.
  - Bishop & Keller: 57-8.
  - Bowman, cit.: 1-2.
  - Carver: 64-5.
  - Grim, cit.: 251-3.
  - Montgomery, cit.: 97.
  - Moore & Halligan: 17-18.
  - Warren: 156.
  - Water, cit.: 134.
  - , "Back to the Indians," *L. D.*, 55-20, Aug. 11, 1917.
  - , "The Indian as a Farmer," *L. D.*, 52:1277.
  - , "Corn That Can't Be Killed," *Sci. Am.*, 119: 30.
  - , "Ear of Indian Corn," *St. Nicholas*, 45:946.
  - , "Maize," *Ind.*, 70:1433.
2. Transmission to white men; its adaptability to frontier conditions. Note its value as a concentrated food, easily transported and prepared.
  - Ashley: "American History," 15.
  - Bogart: 63-64, 182.
  - Bowman: 2-3.
  - Montgomery: 77-81.
  - , "Maize," *Ind.*, 70:11, 1434, July 5, 1910.
3. As a food for man. Indian teeding or "samp" or hominy and the American type. The food on which America grew up.
  - Bogart: 294-5.
  - Geyer, O. R.: "Food from Fodder," *Sci. Am.*, 117: 177ff.
  - Langworthy, C. F., and Hunt, C. L.: "Use of Corn, Kafir and Cowpeas in the Home," *Farmers' Bul.*, 559:1-12, 1913.
  - Montgomery, cit.: 248-52.
  - , "Corn and Pellagra," *Rev. of Revs.*, 41: 350-1.
  - , "Eat Corn and Save Money," *L. D.*, 54:1592.
4. As a leading crop-correlation with live stock development. Explain the function of plants in making inorganic matter into food for animals.
  - Allen: 130-3, 217-8.
  - Bogart: 247.
  - Hunt & Burkett: 291-3, 183.
  - Moore & Halligan: 24.
  - Semple, cit.: 359-60, map, 368.
  - Warren: 159.
  - "Our Beef Supply as a Great Business," *Rev. of Revs.*, 11:414-15.
  - , "Corn Is King—Will It Become the Base Food?" *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 86:106-7.
  - , "Much Wheat—Little Corn?" *Sci. Am.*, 120:600.
5. Introduction into foreign fields. At the Paris exposition Europeans became acquainted with corn bread and other corn products for the first time. Its use grows slowly but surely.
  - Bishop & Keller: 59-60.
  - Warren: "Elements," etc., 57.
  - "Learning to Eat Corn," *Ind.*, 82:180-1.

## III. Production

Amounting to ..... in 1820; to ..... in 1920.

1. Fields of production.
  - a. Corn belt.
    - Allen: 125-7.
    - Bishop & Keller: 59.
    - Bogart: 269.
    - Bowman, cit.: 4-5, 10-23.
    - Montgomery: 6-11 maps, 184-6.
    - Moore & Halligan: 18-21.
    - Smith, C. D.: "Rotations in the Corn Belt," *Agric. Dept. Yearbook*, 1911:325-36.
    - Warren: 157-9.
    - Waters, cit.: 135, 140-1.

- b. Lesser fields.
    - Allen: 135-6.
    - Bowman, cit.: 6-7.
    - Montgomery: 6-11.
    - Moore & Halligan: 18-20.
    - Waters, cit.: 141-2.
    - , "Corn Culture in the S. E. States," *Farmers' Bul.*, 729:1-20.
  - c. Foreign fields.
    - Allen: 135-6.
    - Bowman, cit.: 8-90, 24-34.
    - Montgomery: 1-6.
2. Science and the corn industry.
    - Carver, cit.: 101.
    - Gregory, C. U.: "Farming by Special Train," *Outl.*, 97:913-22.
    - Grim, cit.: 194-7 and 253-64.
    - Hyde, G. E.: "To Grow Hardier Corn," *Tech. World*, 21:713-4.
    - Moore & Halligan: 25-37.
    - Owings, M. R. D.: "New Methods and New Machines for the Farm," *Sci. Am.*, 104:170-4.
    - Smith, J. Warren: "Raining Gold," *Outl.*, 105: 704-5.
    - Starring, Geo. A.: "A New Idea in Corn Breeding," *Tech. World*, 22:551.
  3. Added production through boy-enlistment in corn clubs. A means of teaching better agricultural methods and training young farmers for greater efficiency.
    - Allen: 127-30.
    - Worthington, T.: "Wonderful 4 H Clubs," *St. Nicholas*, 45:547-52.
    - "Boys' and Girls' Agricultural Clubs," *Nat. Geog.*, 22:639-41.
    - "Boys Who Have Made Their Summers Pay," *Am. Mag.*, 81:52.
    - "Corn Clubs and Pig Clubs," *St. Nicholas*, 43:158-60.
    - "Four H. Fair at Springfield," *St. Nich.*, 45:622-9.
    - "How I Raised the Championship Acre of Corn," *Am. Mag.*, 81:81.
    - "Human Agriculture," *Outl.*, 112:9-10.
    - "Jerry Moore," *Ind.*, 79:313.
    - "Most Famous Cornfield," *St. Nich.*, 45:209-11.
    - "Southern Boys Corn Clubs," *Outl.*, 94:279-80.
    - "The Human Side of Farming," *Outl.*, 95:941-9.
    - "Youth Leads the Way," *Am. Mag.*, 80:8-13.
  4. Manufacturing processes.
    - a. Preparation for feeding.
      - Allen: 130-88.
      - Bowman, cit.: 360-382, 382-401.
      - Moore and Halligan: 28-30.
      - Warren: 171-78.
      - , "A New Form of Indian Corn," *L. D.*, 45:839.
    - b. Preparation for human food. An example of the evolution from simple hand processes to involved mechanical ones. Roasting ears and canned corn.
      - Allen: 133.
      - Bowman: 332-44.
      - , "Eat Corn," *Sci. Am.*, 115:590.
      - , "Enough Corn Meal for the Nation," *Sci. Am.*, 118:421.
      - , "Shall We Eat Corn Meal?" *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 84:75.
      - , "Corn Meal as a Food and Ways of Using It," *Farmers' Bul.*, 565.
      - , "Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Harvest," *Nation*, 97:153.
    - c. By-products.
      - Bowman: 345-54.
      - Montgomery: 328-41 and 303-28.
      - Moore and Halligan: 24.
      - Waters: 135.
      - "Paper Made from Indian Corn," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 77:430.
      - , "What Comes from Corn?" *Ind.*, 93: 416-7.

## IV. Economic Problems

1. Soil exhaustion and the growing use of fertilizers. Development of the fertilizer industry.
  - Baldwin, E. F.: "The Human Side of Farming," *Outl.*, 95:941-9.
  - , "How to Grow an Acre of Corn," *Farmers' Bul.*, 537:1-21.
  - Hopkins, C. G.: "The Story of a King and Queen," *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, 78:251-7.
  - Russell, E. J.: "The Principles of Crop Production," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 82:28-31.
  - Whitson & Walder: "Soils and Soil Fertility," 137-62.
  - Van Hise: 323, 326, 349.
  - Bowman: 92-3 and 206.
  - Montgomery: 131-8, 41-2-4, 129-52.
  - Waters: 100-13, 91-100.
  - Warren: "Elements," 108-48, 163.
  - Warren: "Farm Management," 183-203.

## V. Social Problems

## Farm Tenancy.

- Grim: 67-70 and 123-33.
- Carver, T. N.: "Principles," etc., 224-34, 377-80, 114.
- Granbury, J. C.: "Land Problem in Texas," etc., *Survey*, 37:394-5.
- Hibbard, B. H.: "Tenancy in the North Atlantic States," in *Carver's Readings*, 498-507.
- , "Tenancy in the North Central States," *Readings*, 508-22.
- , "Tenancy in the Southern States," 524-35.
- , "Tenancy in the Western States," 536-46.
- Holmes, Geo. K.: "Tenancy in the United States," in *Carver's Readings*, 487-97.
- Bogart: 274-9.
- Kellar, P. R.: "American Farm Landlord-Tenant Problem," *Forum*, 52:81-8.
- Taylor: "Agricultural Economics," 235-327 (technical and advanced diagrams for teachers' use).
- Putnam, Geo. E.: "Agricultural Credit and the Tenancy Question," *Am. Economic Review*, 51: 805-15.

## VI. Political Problems

## 1. The farmer and the good roads question.

- Campbell, H. C.: "Putting the Mudholes Out of Business," *Outlook*, 124:386-90.
- Claudy, C. H.: "Federal Aid in Lighting Mud," *Sci. Am.*, 116:114-5.
- Eustis, J. R.: "Why We Need Better Roads," *Ind.*, 97:28.
- Houston, Secy.: "Good Roads and the Government," *Out.*, 111:923-5.
- Kissel, G. A.: "What Will America's Poor Roads Cost the Public This Year?" *Outl.*, 122:210.
- , "Benefit of Improved Roads to the Farmer," *Farmers' Bul.* 505, U. S. Dept. of Agri.
- , "An Open Letter to Sec. Houston," *Out.*, 111:923-5.
- , "Federal Aid for Highways," *Lit. Dig.*, 53: 236; also U. S. Dept. of Agri. *Yearbook* for 1917, 127-8.
- , "Speed Up the Roads," *Lit. Dig.*, 57:22.
- , "The Government and Good Roads," *Rev. of Rev.*, 54:275-80.
- , "The Biggest Year for Good Roads," *Lit. Dig.*, 62:119-22.

## V. MEAT, HIDES AND WOOL

## I. Introduction

Animals are third in the economic scale of value—plants convert minerals and then animals convert plants into products of higher value to man. Animal products are normally more expensive than vegetable products because of this longer and more intricate process of preparation, because more land, more labor and more capital enters into their make-up.

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## II. The History of Animal Production

Show why animals were widely domesticated before plants, and explain the succession of the pastoral stage to earlier periods of prehistoric life. Explain why a highly developed civilization makes grazing difficult or impossible.

## 1. Prehistoric domestication.

- Bishop & Keller: 105-6.
- Carver: "Principles," etc., 29-34.
- Eckles: 9-12.
- Eckles & Warren: 12-15.
- Hunt & Burkett: 26.
- Plumb: "Beginnings of Animal Husbandry," 14-15.
- Standard Ancient History Texts.
- Hart: "Wool, etc.," 1-12.

## 2. Improvement of breeds.

## a. Cattle.

- Bishop & Keller: 106-7.
- Carver: "Principles," 51-61.
- Eckles: 27-81 (good for special topics).
- Eckles & Warren: 16-38.
- Grim: 368-9, 370-76.
- Hunt & Burkett: 170-80, 184-90.
- Plumb: 46-74.
- Warren: 325-30.
- Waters: 355-360, 382-5.
- "Adding Buffalo to Beef," *Tech. World*, 23: 359-61.
- "Evolution of Beef," *Tech. World*, 22:546.

## b. Sheep.

- Allen: 233-4.
- Grim: 409-11.
- Hunt & Burkett: 235-245.
- Plumb: 74-97.
- Warren: "Elements of Agri.," 350-5.
- Waters: 409-16.

## c. Swine.

- Grim: 416-17.
- Hunt & Burkett: 263-65, 273-81.
- Plumb: 75-113.
- Waters: 396-401.
- Warren: 358-60.

## 3. Bringing of animals to America. Fine breeds were not imported to any appreciable extent until the nineteenth century.

- Allen: 234.

- Barnes: 91-114.  
 Bishop & Keller: 106-8, 124-28.  
 Bogart: 72.  
 Carver: "Principles," 71, 83-4.  
 Eckles: 27-31.  
 Grim: 369.  
 Hunt & Burkett.  
 Warren: "Principles," 325.  
 Waters: 409-10.  
 Plumb: See paragraphs at end of each type.
4. Domestic period of animal industries. When America was colonized the settlers brought with them the current methods of European production.
- Meat preservation in modern times.  
 Bishop & Keller: 107-8.  
 Carver: 71, 88.  
 Hunt & Burkett: 230-31.  
 "Great American Industries": 100.  
 Semple: 358-9.
  - Dairying on the farm.  
 Bishop & Keller: 114-15.  
 Bogart: 72.  
 Carver: 91.
  - Tanning of leather and home shoes and harness, etc.  
 Allen, F. J.: "The Shoe Industry," 27-39.  
 Bishop & Keller: 259-60.  
 Bogart: 63.  
 Coman, K.: 67-8, 131.  
 Gannon, F. A.: 7-13.  
 —, "Great American Industries," 100.
  - Spinning and weaving of wool.  
 Bishop & Keller: 124-5.  
 Bogart: 56-142.  
 Carver: 90.  
 Hart: 176-84.
5. Entrepreneur and small capitalist period. This period, beginning early in the nineteenth century, lasted until about 1880, when the period of large-scale production begins. The establishments were small, the master and his workmen knew each other personally and labor troubles were almost unknown.
- Early meat packing in the United States.  
 Bishop & Keller: 108-9, 113.  
 Bogart: 242-44, 276-7.  
 Carver: 82-8.
  - Early tanneries.  
 Allen, F. J.: "Shoe Industry," 90-1, 39-44.  
 Bishop & Keller: 260-3.  
 Coman, K.: "Ind. Hist.," 144-241.  
 Gannon, F. A.: 19-26.
  - The wool (merchants), etc.  
 Bishop & Keller: 125-6.  
 Bogart: 163, 149-50, 53.  
 Carver: 83.  
 Cherington: 2-7 (wool), 7-10 (worsted), 10-15 (mills).  
 Hart: 176-84.
6. Modern production—large capitalist period. Characterized by localization, very efficient and economical business organization, and extreme separation of capital and labor, resulting in labor difficulties.
- A modern meat-production and meat-packing establishment. Use of by-products.  
 Allen: 220-23, 223-4.  
 Bishop & Keller: 113-14.  
 Bogart: 242-4.  
 Grim: 420-2.  
 Hunt & Burkett: 230-1, 261-2.  
 Warren: "Elements," 333.  
 Waters: 401-6.  
 —, "Our Beef Supply as a Great Business," Rev. of Rev., 41:314-5.  
 Mills: "Great American Industries," 101-23.  
 Harger: "Modern Methods in Cattle Industry," Outl., 72:39.
  - Modern dairy industry.  
 Allen: 226-31.
- Bishop & Keller: 116-7.  
 Bogart: 277-8.  
 Carver: 104-6.  
 Grim: 382-392.  
 Hunt & Burkett: 430-8.  
 Warren: 334-7.  
 Waters: 363-73-80.  
 —, "Our Beef Supply as a Great Business," Rev. of Rev., 41:312-3.
- c. Wholesale leather and the modern market.  
 Allen: 224.  
 Allen, F. J.: "Shoe Industry," 44-53, 93-120ff.  
 Bishop & Keller: 262-7.  
 Coman: 241-60.  
 Gannon: 13-19.  
 Keys, C. M.: "Ten Years of Industrial America," *World's Work*, 21:13889ff.  
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 —, "Beef Industry," U. S. Comm. of Corp'n's, 1905, 211-21.  
 Procter: "The Making of Leather," *Farmers' Bul.* 1055, U. S. Dept. of Agr., 45-63.
- d. How wool is marketed and manufactured.  
 Allen: 240-7.  
 Bishop & Keller: 131-2, 234-6.  
 Bogart: 359.  
 Cherington: "The Wool Industry" (selling problems, styles, etc.).  
 Hart: 101-35.  
 Hunt & Burkett: 225-9, 386-8.  
 Keys, C. M.: "Ten Years of Industrial America," *World's Work*, 21:13888-90.  
 Potter: 226-39.  
 —, "I Need Production, Not Wool," *Lit. Dig.*, 62:21.  
 —, "A New Era of Industrial Efficiency," *World's Work*, 26:380-1.

### III. Regions of Animal Production

- The successive areas of agricultural development, going westward with the white man: Show how the real frontiersman, who opened up the country but produced no material surplus wealth, was followed by the herdsman, who fed great flocks and herds upon practically free land; and he, in times of greater and more staple population, by the feeder, who raises animals on crop foods, producing his animal products at a much greater cost, but in less space, than his predecessor. In certain parts of the far west the plainsman still herds animals on big ranches, but as types the cowboy and the plain fed animal are gone.  
 Allen: 209-11, 225-6.  
 Bishop & Keller: 108, 129-30.  
 Bogart: 233-4, 298-300.  
 Carver: 101-4.  
 Barnes: 21-32, 80-90.  
 Harger: "Cattle Nails of the Prairies," *Scribner's*, 11:732.  
 Harvey, W. C.: "Our Beet Supply as a Great Business," Rev. of Rev., 41:308-11.  
 Semple: 359.  
 Warren: 355.  
 —, "A 100,000-Acre Business," *Wld's. Work*, 25:271-5.  
 Wilkins: "Cattle Raising on the Plains," *Harper's*, 72:788.
- Present distribution of animal husbandry.  
 Allen: 210-11, 225-6 (cattle), 239-40 (sheep), 247-51.  
 Bishop & Keller: 109-10, 129-31.  
 Barnes: 32-80.  
 Hunt & Burkett.  
 Potter: 37-52, 124-65, 369-75.
- The meat-packing centers.  
 Allen: 222-3.  
 Bishop & Keller: 114.  
 Bogart: 298-300.

Hunt & Burkett: 512.

Semple: 359-70.

Sikes, Geo. C.: "Chicago, North America's Transportation Center," *Rev. of Rev.*, 57:273-80.

#### 4. Transportation and markets.

Allen: 223.

Bishop & Keller: 112-3.

Coulter: 76-111.

Eckles & Warren: 208-14, 250-4.

Potter: 68-92, 407-14.

Hunt & Burkett: 510-14.

—, "Losses in the Meat Industry," *Lit. Dig.*, 61:113-4.

—, "Our Beef Supply as a Great Business," *Rev. of Rev.*, 41:316-7.

#### IV. Economic Problems

##### 1. The lessening grazing lands. How animals increase the value of plant food to the feeder. Pasture problems.

Allen: 211.

Bogart: 298-9.

Carver: 111, 103-4.

Eckles & Warren: 202-8.

Grim: 411-16.

Howard, R. R.: "The Passing of the Cattle King," *Outl.*, 98:195, 204.

Hunt & Burkett: 182-4, 247-56.

Price, T. H.: "A 100,000-Acre Business," *World's Work*, 25:271-5.

Waters: 381-4.

Warren: 355-6.

##### 2. Plant vs. animal food for consumers. A permanent balanced food supply for the world. Show how foods of cheaper production cost, but high food value, may be partially or wholly substituted for meat, thus cheapening, distributing and equalizing the supply.

Mackenzie, W.: "Rabbits to Feed England," *Tech. World*, 221:432-3.

—, "Flesh-eating and Ferocity," *Lit. Dig.*, 61:25.

##### 3. Dairy industry. The growing use of dairy foods rather than meats means greater economy; why? Show how and why dairy farming requires more intelligence than grazing. Show the relationship of dairying and grazing to population.

Coulter: 24-76.

Hunt & Burkett: 433-36.

Warren: "Farm Management," Chap. on dairies.

##### 4. Live stock in a scheme of permanent agriculture. Emphasize the present need for substituting permanent methods of production for those based on American conditions not typical of the world in general. The law of diminishing returns may be discussed here to classes sufficiently mature to understand it, provided it is very concretely presented. It will be more fully treated in the twelfth-year work.

Carver: 266-8.

Eckles & Warren: 232-88.

Hunt & Burkett: 135.

"Deer Farming in the U. S.," D. E. Lantz, *Farmers' Bull.*, 330.

Plumb: "Beg., etc.," 15-21.

Warren: "Farm Management," 202-10.

Barnes: 199-245.

#### V. Social Aspects

##### 1. Life of cowboys and shepherds.

Allen: 211-17, 234-39.

Barnes: 114-63.

Bishop & Keller: 110-11, 130-31.

Buckman, G. R.: "Cowboy Life," *Outing*, 19:181, 269, 357.

Grim: 412, 414.

Harger, C. M.: "Sheep and Shepherds," *Outl.*, 72:689, 73:839.

Hough: *Passim*.

Wilkinson: "Cattle Raising on the Plains," *Harper's*, 72:788.

Warren: 355-6.

##### 2. Simplification of farm life with development of dairying; in coöperation farming.

Eckles & Warren: 221-9, 276-9.

Hunt & Burkett: 437-8.

##### 3. Foreign labor in packing plants.

See Carleton Parker's articles, *Atl. M.*, 1917-9.

#### VI. Political Problems

##### 1. Government inspection of milk, meats, etc. The teacher should at this point explain three periods of practice with regard to social control: the extreme regulation of the eighteenth century in the interests of profits, the reaction into extreme *Laissez Faire* and exploitation by capital, and the modern ideal and practice of regulation in the interest of social welfare. Much local illustration should be used at this point and the efficiency of the local machinery should be made a point of especial inquiry. See that the class knows what agencies inspect milk and meat sold in their own home town. This offers one of many opportunities for genuine "community civics."

Bishop & Keller.

Eckles & Warren: 177-81.

Hunt & Burkett: 515.

"Saving Our Cattle," etc., *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 87:328.

—, "Standard Economics Texts."

Potter: 103-8.

##### 2. Packers and the government (trusts). An illustration of conflict and agreement of interests between the people, organized for common welfare in a government, and capital, efficiently organized for production. Emphasize not so much the causes and details of the struggle as the possibilities and means of profitable conciliation.

Swift & Co.: "Consumer and the Future," packer's side, *Survey*, 42:712-13.

—, "Congress and the Cost of Living," *Ind.*, 99:74-5.

—, "Menace of a Food Trust," *Lit. Dig.*, 62:9-11.

—, "Packers State Their Case," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:4-15.

—, "The Packers at the Bar of Public Opinion," *Lit. Dig.*, 62:21-4.

—, "To Find New Packers," *New Republic*, 20:9-10.

—, "World's Almanac, 1920": 332.

—, "Who Shall Own the Cars?" *Sci. Am.*, 121:248.

Swift, L. F.: "Harassed Packer," *New Repub.*, 22:420.

—, "Packers are Human," *New Repub.*, 22:156-7.

Cheney, W. L.: "Unscrambling," *Survey*, 43:304.

"Unscrambling of the Packers," *Outl.*, 123:564.

"Unscrambling the Eggs," *Ind.*, 101:16-17.

"Will Unscrambling the Packers Reduce Prices?" *Lit. Dig.*, 64:11-13.

#### VI. COTTON

##### I. Introductory Motivation

Explain the saying that "Cotton Is King." Why were people adjured a few years ago to "Buy a Bale?" In other words, why is cotton production important? Its increasing production and sale for textile manufacture.

Burkett and Poe: 3-9, 55.

—, "Buy a Bale of Cotton," *Lit. Dig.*, 669-71, V. 49.

—, "Cotton's Magical Rise Enriching the Nation," *Lit. Dig.*, V. 53, 1517-20.

—, "Shall We Wear Cotton?"

Todd, J. A.: 231-3.

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Nasmith, Joseph: "The Students' Cotton Spinning." Manchester, 1896, 3d ed.

Murphy, E. G.: "The Present South." Longmans Green & Co., 1910.

Olmsted, Frederick Law: "The Cotton Kingdom." N. Y. Mason Bros., 1861. Most excellent for description of ante-bellum plantation conditions.

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Scherer, James: "Cotton as a World Power." F. A. Stokes & Co., N. Y., 1916.

Todd, J. A.: "The World's Cotton Crops." A. C. Black, London, 1915.

—, "Studies in Southern History and Politics," inscribed to Prof. Dunning. N. Y. Columbia University Press, 1914. Particularly the essay of Holland Thompson, "The New South, Economic and Social."

Washington, Booker T.: "Up from Slavery." N. Y. Doubleday Page & Co., 1902. "Tuskegee and Its People, Their Ideals and Achievements." N. Y. D. Appleton Co., 1905. "The Story of the Negro." Doubleday Page & Co., 1909.

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Woodbury, C. J. H.: "Bibliography of the Cotton Manufacture." Waltham, Mass. Press of E. L. Barry, 1909-10.

## II. History of Cotton

1. In the old world. It passes from India to ancient Assyria and to Egypt. Early manufacture and trade.

a. Origin in India.

Scherer: 1-15 (myth.), 16-21 (facts).

Wilkinson: 11-6.

Burkett and Poe: 13-16.

Brooks: 92-98.

Nasmith: 5-11.

b. Progress westward.

Scherer: 22-33.

Wilkinson: 17-19.

c. In the Middle Ages, a staple article of commerce by caravan and ship, from East to West, transported as a finished product.

Peake, R. J.: 2.

Scherer: 34-48.

Wilkinson: 16-7.

2. In America: It furnished the dress of the Southwest tribes as skins did of the Northern Indians.

a. Indian cultivation of indigenous cotton.

Bishop and Keller: 92.

Brooks: 98.

Scherer: 113-7.

—, "An Early Type of Cotton Raised in the United States by Hopi Indians," Sci. Am., 107:442; Lit. Dig., 45:1009.

Todd, J. A.: 97-8.

b. Colonial planting, 1621ff. It was a crop of small comparative importance for many years, as the labor of freeing it from seeds by hand made profits small.

Burkett and Poe: 17-9.

Brooks: 100-5.

Scherer: 118-26.

Todd: 97-8.

3. The industrial revolution: English inventors improved the spinning and weaving processes and substituted water and steam power for man power.

Scherer: 51-8, 88-96 (intermediate material too detailed for student).

Wilkinson: 113-126 and 126-146 (early and later inventions).

Nasmith: 11-20 and 25.

4. Eli Whitney and his cotton gin; an American inventor finishes the transformation as a commercial product by making profitable a vast increase in production.

a. Todd: 98.

Nasmith: 20-21.

Scherer: 158-162.

Tompkins: "C. P. M.," etc., 3-5 (southern, disparages Whitney).

b. Effect of gin on production.

Bishop and Keller: 93, graph.

Nasmith: 23-24.

Peake: 31.

Burkett and Poe: 216-218.

Scherer: 149-151 (statistical diagram).

c. Effect of increased production on economic and social conditions.

1) Slavery becomes fixed on the South through the profits of cotton-raising.

Scherer: 150-8.

Tompkins: 5-7.

2) Character of Southern society; an aristocracy, doing no manual labor, fixes the character of society.

Burkett and Poe: 310-13.

Scherer: 170-1, 301-9.

Olmsted, Frederick Law: "The Cotton Kingdom."

3) Character of Southern agriculture.

Scherer: 168-70.

Olmsted: supra cit.

d. Effect of cotton production on westward expansion; cotton as a staple crop uses the land resources wastefully, and, therefore, creates an insatiable need of more land.

Bishop and Keller: 94.

Scherer: 171-76 and 197-202.

"Standard American History Texts."

5. Present status of the cotton industry.

a. The cotton plant—nature and varieties.

Wilkinson: 19-31 (somewhat tech.).

Peake: 16-20.

Todd: 7-10.

Goulding and Dunstan: 8-17.

b. Cultivation and harvesting—the initial production.

Peake: 20-23, tables 25 and 26.

Wilkinson: 39-63.

Brooks: 156-170.

Burkett and Poe: 104-8.

Day: "Picking Cotton by Machine," Sci. Am., 104:231.

Farmers' Bulletin, 601:9-12, 1914 (somewhat technical).

Farmers' Bulletin, 787:17-19, 1916.

Farmers' Bulletin, 802:6, map of the cotton belt.

Todd: 11-12 and 88-97.

c. Manufacturing processes for the fiber—the secondary production.

1) Preparation of the fiber.

Wilkinson: 82-94 (rather technical, rest too much so).

Peake: 47-74.

Burkett and Poe: 318-22.

2) Spinning.

Wilkinson: 146-76.

Peake: 74-84.

Burkett and Poe: 322.

Todd: 342-7.

3) Weaving.

Peake: 84-110 (tech.).

Burkett and Poe: 323-9.

Todd: 347-8.

4) Dyeing and finishing.

Peake: 110-5.



- Burkett and Poe: 327-9.  
Todd: 348-53.
- d. Manufacture and use of cottonseed, an extremely useful by-product, which illustrates modern manufacturing and marketing economy.  
Bishop and Keller: 102-4, table 103.  
Burkett and Poe: 275-99.  
Scherer: 354-6.  
Todd: 354-65.  
——, "Cottonseed and Its Uses," *Sci. Am.* 106: 504, 1912.  
——, "The Uses of Cottonseed," *Lit. Dig.*, Dec. 1, 1912.  
——, "Excellent Photographs," *Sci. Am.*, 119: 498 (article not authenticated).
- e. Locale of industry.
- 1) Cotton production.  
Bishop and Keller: Map 95.  
Wilkinson: 41.  
Peake: 21-26, 33-44 and map 135-6.  
Burkett and Poe: 20-2.  
"Maps of Different Countries and Their Production," Todd: 48, 60, 84, 132, 180, 208, 216, 296, 324 and end.
  - 2) Cotton manufacturing; England has kept much of the manufacture of cotton cloth because of the skill of her weavers, but the United States is spinning more and more thread. Cotton manufacture has lately invaded the South, in which it is now in the same stages as characterized the North fifty years ago.  
Wilkinson: 176-87.  
Todd: 13-17 and 230-35.  
Thompson, H.: cit. 300-3.  
Chapman, S. J.: "The Cotton Industry and Trade," 138-51.  
Copeland, M. T.: "The Future of the Cotton Industry," *Atlantic Mo.*, 126: 793-808.
  - 3) Transportation. Cotton is a very bulky product, and is now carried both as a raw and as a finished product.  
Burkett and Poe: 72-4, 53-7.  
Scherer: 56-7, 335-40, 351-4.  
Brooks: 274-303.  
Peake: 116-9.  
Todd: 120-8.  
*Farmers' Bulletin*, 5-7 (No. 764).  
Branan, Will: "Public Warehouses for Cotton," *Tech. World*, 22: 402-3.  
——, "A Waste of \$75,000,000 a Year," *World's Work*, 24: 378.  
Chapman: "Cotton Industry and Trade," etc., 52-5.
  - 4) Economic phases.
    - a) Relative efficiency of slave and free labor systems. The slaveholders defended with their "lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor" an institution not economically defensible.  
(1) Slave labor, 1795-1865. Todd: 207; Bishop & Keller: 93; Thompson: 304-7; Chapman: "The Cotton Industry and Trade," 148-9.  
(2) Free labor, 1865-1920. Burkett & Poe: 269-71; Brooks: 106-14; *Farmers' Bulletin*, 787: 4; Tompkins, D. A.: "C. P.," etc., 11-3; Scherer: 325-30; Todd: 107-9; Abbott, J.: "King Cotton," *Independent*, 72: 509-10.
    - b) The Civil War shortage and the Lancashire weavers. An example of international interdependence and of the power of moral conviction.  
Peake: 31; Scherer: 261-7, 270-7, the famine in France; Chapman: "The Cotton Industry and Trade," 66-7.
    - c) The cotton growers' and middlemen's associations—the advantages of organization for producers and handlers.  
Peake: 44-6; Burkett and Poe: 58-67, 270-2, 234-58, cotton exchange; Page, Ralph W.: "A War of Independence," *World's Work*, 29: 213-4; Todd: 129-30, 151-4, 159-64 (British).
    - d) Permanent agriculture.
      - (1) The boll-weevil and the scientist. An agricultural system that does not provide for the future steals from succeeding generations. Wilkinson: 38; Peake, 32-3; Burkett and Poe: 174-81; Todd: 105-6.
      - (2) Other pests. (See above references.)
      - (3) Staple vs. diversified farming; why the planter gives way to the farmer. Burkett and Poe: 46-7; Johnson, Lehman: "The Solution of the World's Cotton Problem," *Sci. Am.*, 113: 297ff; Merriam, James R.: "More Little Stories of Elastic Currency," *World's Work*, 27: 78-9; *Farmers' Bulletin*, 787: 9-12; Thompson, Holland: 298-9.
      - (4) Large vs. small plantations. Peake: 31; Burkett and Poe: 194-9; Brooks: 114-28; *Farmers' Bulletin*, 787: 8-9; Thompson: 296-7.
      - 5) Social phases.
        - a) The great planter vs. the small farmer in the South; a growth in democracy.  
Keasbey, L. M.: "The Agrarian Unrest in the South," *New Rep.*, 4: 146-8; Thompson: 294-6; Burkett and Poe: 194-9, as above; Hibbard, B. H.: "Tenancy in the Southern States," *Quarterly Jour. E. C.*: 27: 482-96, N. Y., 1913 (teacher).
        - b) The race problem of the negro. Americans are peculiarly unsuccessful in dealing with race problems; here is the most serious of all.  
Burkett and Poe: 36-40; Scherer: 323-4; Todd: 176-7; Thompson: 307-12; Washington, B. T.: "Up from Slavery," *Tuskegee and Its People*, "The Story of the Negro"; —, "Negro Question and Its Solution," *Ind.*, 77: 395-6; —, "Negro Public Schools," *Ind.*, 73: 217-9; —, "Trend in Negro Education," *Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Education*, 1913, 30: 75-6; —, "Negroes in America," *Lit. Dig.*, 63: 40ff; —, "Lynchings in 1919," *Lit. Dig.*, 64: 20; Crowell, C. T.: "Message to the North," *Ind.*, 70: 992-4 (Southern); Murphy: 151-203, 29-94; "Contrasts at Home and Abroad" (by a Negro), *Ind.*, 73: 661-4; Baker, R. S.: "Gathering Clouds Along the Colored Line," *World's Work*, 32: 242-6; —, "Education and Crime Among Negroes," *Rev. of Rev.*, 55: 318-20; Pendleton, H. B.: "Cotton-Pickers in the Northern Cities," *Survey*, 37: 569-71; Baker, R. S.: "The Negro Goes North," *World's Work*, 34: 314-9; —, "Southern Negroes Moving North" (as a Southerner sees it), *World's Work*, 34: 135; "South Calling Negroes Back," *Lit. Dig.*, 54: 1914ff; —, "Welcoming Southern Negroes, East St. Louis and Detroit, a Contrast," *Survey*, 38: 331-5; Quillin, T. U.: "Negro in Cleveland, Ohio," *Ind.*, 68: 399-403; Breckenridge, Sophonisba P.: "The Color Line in the Housing Problem," *Survey*, 29: 576ff; Banks, Enoch Marvin: "The New Point of View in the South," *Ind.*, 71: 79-83; —, "Fifty Years of Emancipation," *Ind.*, 73: 682-3; —, "Fifty Years of Emancipation," *Lit. Dig.*, 45: 568ff; —, "Mind in the White and the Negro," *Lit. Dig.*, 48: 101-2; Weatherly, U. G.: "World-Wide Color Line," *Pop. Sci.*, 79: 474-83 (excellent for teachers—theory); DuBois, W. E. B.: "Social Effects of Emancipation," *Survey*, 29: 570-3; Barnett, Ida B. Wells: "Our Country's Lynching Record," *Survey*, 29: 573-4; Addams, Jane: "Has the Emancipation Act Been Annulled by National Indifference?" *Survey*, 29: 565-6.

- c) Child labor in Southern cotton mills. Clopper, E. N.: "Causes of Absence from Rural Schools in Oklahoma," *Child Labor Bul.*, 6:90-113; Hine, L. W.: "Children or Cotton," *Survey*, 31:582-92; Hine, W. L.: "Baltimore to Biloxi and Back," etc. (a parallel study of cannery labor), *Survey*, 30:167-72; Manney, F. A.: "10,000 Children in Industry," *Survey*, 36:94; —, "The South and the Child Labor Bill," *Outl.*, 112:404; McKelway, A. J.: "Protecting Negro Child Labor in the South," *Survey*, 32:496; McKelway, A. J.: "Child Labor and Its Relation to Illiteracy," *Natl. Educ. Assn.*, 1916, 817-8; McKelway, A. J.: "The Child Labor Campaign in the South," *Survey*, 27:1023-26; Todd, H. M.: "Why Children Work—The Children's Answer," *McClure's*, 40:68-79; Wald, W. D.: "Children and Work," *Atlantic*, 115:806; Wannamaker, O. D.: "Child Labor and Cotton," *Survey*, 42:857-80; —, "Can Georgia Do It?" *Outlook*, 107:888-9; —, "Child Workers in North Carolina Cotton Mills," *Survey*, 33:573; —, See also *Child Labor Bulletin*, *Annals of Am. Acad. of S. Sc.*, Vs. 35-8; Murphy, E. G.: "The Present South," 95-151.
- 6) Political Phases. Among English-speaking peoples, any important question is liable to find its way into politics eventually.
- a) Development of the slavery question. Use standard textbooks.
  - b) Reconstruction and cotton. Burkett and Poe: 313-18; Tompkins: "Cotton-Growing," 3-5; Todd: 98.
  - c) European attitude during the Civil War. Why? Burkett and Poe: 26-34; Scherer: 278-82; Standard Texts.
  - d) European attitude during the Great War—the effect of the struggle on the cotton trade. "The Great Use of Cotton in Powder for the War," *Lit. Dig.*, 50:1506; "The Cotton-Contraband Controversy," *Lit. Dig.*, 51: Aug. 21, 1915; Todd: 369-87, contains a complete account of the early months of the war and a prophecy of the demand after the war, with the attendant redistribution and increase in cotton production and marketing.
  - e) Free trade or protection? England and her free trade policy. (American vs. Egyptian and Indian cotton, etc.) A very important question in the matter of wool production also. Brooks: 296-300; Scherer: 179-182 and 310-4; Todd: 231-3; Howe, H. E.: "Future of the Cotton Industry," *Sci. Am.*, 122:300.

## VII. IRON AND STEEL

### I. Introduction

Perhaps the best way of securing a conception of the importance of iron and steel in the modern world is to imagine it eliminated. Let the class speculate on the quality of a civilization which is minus railroads, steamships, tall buildings, manufactories, deep mines, modern agricultural machinery and watch springs.

Allen: 166-8.

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—, "The Romance of Steel: The Story of a Thousand Millionaires." Barnes, N. Y.

### II. The Story of Iron and Steel

1. In ancient times. Iron succeeds bronze as a civilizing agent.  
 Allen: 167.  
 Breasted: 157, 263.  
 Bishop & Keller: 166.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 1-16.  
 —, "The Use of Iron by Primitive Man," *Sci. Am. S.*, 83:148.  
 —, "Standard Ancient History Texts."
2. In medieval times—the Catalan forge. The invention of steel and the fine steel of Damascus and Toledo.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 16-22.  
 —, "Standard Texts in Medieval History."
3. How iron helped the Industrial Revolution.  
 Herrick: 280, 299.  
 Ogg: "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," 89-93.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 41-7, 71-6.
4. Early iron-making in the colonies.  
 Becker: 151.  
 Bishop & Keller: 166-8.  
 Bogart: 6, 36, 39, 45, 57-8, 59.  
 Herrick: 319.  
 Semple: 83.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 23-41.
5. Early iron and steel in the United States.  
 Ashley: *American Hist.*, 323.  
 Bishop & Keller: 168-170.  
 Bogart: 150-1, 178, 281-2, 336, 361-3.  
 Pero, J. P., and Neilsen, J. C.: *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 82: 54-5, "The Evolution of Malleable Iron."  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 41-71.
6. The Bessemer and open-hearth processes and their effects.  
 Allen: 179.  
 Baekert: "The A. B. C. of Iron and Steel," excellent photographs. Chs. XI and XII: 120-54.  
 Bogart: 361-2, 390-1.  
 Campbell, H. H.: "The Passing of the Acid Bessemer Steel," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 82:286.  
 Paxson: 16.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 78-82, 34-42.  
 —, "An Improvement in the Open-Hearth Steel Making," *Sci. Am.*, 83:147.  
 —, "Industry's Greatest Asset, Steel," *N. Geog.*, 32:130-1, 133-56, excellent.  
 —, "Modern Researches in the Metallurgy of Iron," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 78:280-3.  
 —, "Open Hearth vs. the Electric Furnace," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 81:107.  
 Wellman, S. F.: "The Story of a Visit to Sir Henry Bessemer," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 74:402-3.
7. Increased demand for iron and steel products have increased the production.  
 Bishop & Keller: 171-2.  
 Bogart: 388-92.  
 Dayton, T. S.: "Miracles in Iron and Steel," *Harp-er's Weekly*, 56:9.  
 Dewey: 16-18.  
 —, "Steel and Copper," *Ind.*, 89:375-6.  
 —, "Steel in the Light of Modern Research," *Sci. Am.*, 80:323.  
 —, "The Steel Industry and a Year of War," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 80:298.  
 —, "The Steel Trade," *Ind.*, 90:219.
8. Present production in the United States. The marvelous story of high-grade steel and other steel alloys.  
 Bishop & Keller: 171.  
 Bogart: 393, 455.  
 Herrick: 512-13.  
 Keys, C. M.: "America," *World's Work*, 21:13888-9.

Topping, J. R.: "Iron and Steel," *World's Work*, 34:25-6.  
 —, "Great Revival in the Steel Industry," *Ind.*, 84:283.  
 —, "One-Half the World's Steel Now Made Here," *Lit. Dig.*, 55:120-3.  
 —, "Our Big Steel Year," *Lit. Dig.*, 54:245.  
 —, "Steel and Prosperity," *Ind.*, 85:100-1.  
 Tappan: 57-65.  
 —, "The World's Yield of Coal and Iron," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 80:326.  
 Van Hise: 65-6.  
 "Taming Steel With Fire," *St. Nicholas*, 41:61-3.  
 "The A. B. C. of Iron and Steel," 291-300 (statistics of progress).

### III. Geography of Iron and Steel

#### 1. World's iron fields.

- a. Fields now exhausted but of importance in the past.  
 Bishop and Keller: 169-70.  
 Herrick: 487.  
 Van Hise: 68.
- b. Fields still producing.  
 Allen: 168-70.  
 Bishop & Keller: 24 map.  
 Coult, A. S.: "Good Steel from the Junk-Pile," *Tech. World*, 23:862-4.  
 Herrick: 373, 487.  
 Howe, H. M.: "An Optimist's View of the Iron Ore Supply," *Atl. Mo.*, 105:827-34.  
 "World Short of Steel," *Lit. Dig.*, 64:95.  
 Van Hise: 64-5, 68.
- c. Fields still unused or nearly so. The treasures of the future.  
 Baekert: "The A. B. C. of Iron and Steel" (Table 19).  
 Herrick: 404, 425.  
 Gregory, J. W.: "The Iron Ore Supplies of the World," *Sci. Am. S.*, 72:306.  
 Kemp, J. F.: "The Supply of Iron," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 72:249-51.  
 Van Hise: 64-5, 69.  
 —, "Our Iron Ore Reserves," *S. A. Sup.*, 71:325.  
 —, "The Michigan Iron Ranges" (tech.), *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 76:235.  
 —, "The Iron Ore Resources of the World," *Sci. Am.*, 70:191-2.

#### 2. Location of industries.

- a. In Europe.  
 Allen: 171-2.  
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- b. American.  
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 Semple: 273, 352-6, 370.

Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 112-116.  
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 —, "Moving Structural Steel With a Tractor," *Sci. Am.*, 114:406.  
 Van Hise: 70-2.

### IV. Economic Phases

1. Division of labor in production. The contrast between the modes of production when one blacksmith carried on all processes from the smelting of the ore to the turning out of a finished sword or hoe-blade and the modern methods of detailed division of labor should be made clear. Then the mental effects of monotony in labor should be noted, with suggestions for remedies; and the economic effects in lack of mobility in labor. Emphasize the necessity of a good general education as a safeguard against unemployment as a result of some change in the process.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 114-26.  
 "Bethlehem," sketches by J. Stelle, *Survey*, 41:615. Illustrations only.  
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 Bogart: 369, 378-9, 392, 403-4.  
 Paxson: 297-8.  
 Smith: "The Story of Iron and Steel," 127-164.  
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 —, "Steel Strike," *New Republic*, 20:245-6.  
 —, "Steel Strike as a Labor Crisis," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:11-13.  
 —, "Striking While the Iron Is Hot," *Ind.*, 3-4.  
 —, "What the Steel Strikers Think of the Police," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:46-52.  
 —, "What Those Cossacks Think of the Steel Strikers," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:50-6.

## V. Political Phases

1. The trust problem.
  - a. Era of agitation and state action.  
Ashley: 528-9, 462.  
"Standard History Texts."
  - b. Sherman law not enforced.  
Ashley: 528-9.  
Dewey: 198.  
Henrick: 529.  
Magruder: 74.  
Paxson: 172-3, 293.
  - c. First period of enforcement. Literal interpretation.  
Dewey: 199.  
Herrick: 529.  
Paxson: 320-2.  
"Standard Civics."
  - d. Second period; common-sense differentiation between "good" and "bad" trusts.  
Herrick: 529.  
See Civics and Histories (standard texts).
  - e. Recent steel trust decision.  
"Popular Approval of the Steel Trust's Acquittal," Lit. Dig., 50: 1455.  
——, "Steel Trust Finds It Pays to Be Good," Lit. Dig., 64: 17-18.  
"Supreme Court Decision in the Steel Cases," Curr. Hist. in N. Y. Times, 12, Part 1: 37-8.  
——, "The Steel Trust Found Guiltless," Lit. Dig., 50: 1386.  
"The Decision for the Steel Corporation," Nation, 100: 644.  
"The Steel Corporation Decision," Outl., 110: 301-2.
  - f. Principle established.  
"The Steel Trust Decision," Rev. of Rev., 52: 25-6 cf; also s. supra.
2. Immigration. Be sure to make clear the relation between the development of manufacturing in America—iron and steel being the basic and most important manufacturing industry, and the "New Immigration" of 1885ff. Show how the need for cheap and docile labor induced capitalists to encourage laborers to come to America.
  - a. Early immigration into America.  
Bishop & Keller: 39-40.  
Bogart: 421.  
Fairchild: "Immigration" (Macmillan Co., 1914): 53-106.  
Semple: 310-16.  
Warne: "Immigrant Invasion" (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1913): 68-89.
  - b. Later immigration—reasons.  
Bishop & Keller: 40-2.  
Fairchild: 106-82.  
Semple: 317-332.  
Warne: 113-26.
  - c. Immigration problems. Emphasize the easier assimilation of the Northwestern European immigration, which came before 1870, and which went largely into agriculture, and the difficulties in the way of Americanizing the later immigrant, who works in a factory and lives in a foreign colony, in some large city. Note the Americanizing agencies in the local unit, and evaluate their efficiency as far as may be possible or wise.  
Bishop & Keller: 42-3.  
Fairchild: (Special topics.) Chs. X, XVIII, XVII ff, 369-437, class reading.  
Semple: 330-6.  
Warne: 127-64.
3. Control of iron and steel territory—international rivalries. (To teacher: The following references are not necessary, but pertinent, as illustrating the influence of industrial control on international affairs. If not studied by the class—the work is too advanced for many ninth-grade pupils—the teacher should give a

short talk upon this subject, illustrated by map reference.)

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——, "France's Iron Riches that Germany Did Not Get," *Review of Rev.*, 42: 371-2.  
——, "Germany's Designs on French Iron Ore," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 85: 123.  
——, "Germany's Losses in Steel Under the Peace Treaty," *Lit. Dig.*, 62: 98-100.  
——, "La Guerre Pour le Mineral de fer," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 86: 279.  
——, "Lorraine, Coal and Iron," *New Republic*, 12: 152-4.

## VI. Social Phases

1. Changes in American society from immigration.  
Bogart: 421-3.  
Hodges, L. R.: "Immigrant Life in the Ore Region of Northern Minnesota," *Survey*, 28: 703-4.  
Pfeiffer, C. W.: "From Bohunks to Finns," *Survey*, 36: 8-14.  
Vorse, M. H.: "Aliens," *Outlook*, 125: 24-6.  
Vorse, M. H.: "Behind the Picket Line," *Outlook*, 124: 107-9.  
Parker, C. H.: "The Labor Policy of the American Trust," *Atl. Mo.*, 125: 225-31.
2. Housing problems in a factory district.  
Talbot, W.: "The American Illiterate," *World's Wk.*, 32: 303-5 (diagr.).  
Parker, C. H.: "The Technique of American Industry," *Atl. Mo.*, 125: 12-23.  
"Steel and Steel Workers in Six American States," *Survey*, 27: 1285-98.
3. Lives of the workers.  
Bond, A. R.: "With Men Who Do Things," *St. Nicholas*, 40: 402-9.  
Close, C. L.: "The Economic Saving of Human Resources," *Sci. Mo.*, 4: 428-37.  
Dennett, Tyler: "U. S. Steel Corporation—Employer," *Outlook*, 111: 723-31.  
Fitch, J. A.: "Experiments with the Eight-Hour Day," *Survey*, 29: 198-200.  
Fitch, John A.: "Old Age at Forty," *Am. M.*, 71: 655-64.  
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Talmán, C. F.: "Story of Iron and Steel," *Mentor*, 7: 1-11.  
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——, "Shall Steel Workers Work Seven Days?" *Survey*, 37: 131.  
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### VIII. COAL

#### I. Introduction

Coal is the foundation of modern production. Without it, factories and ships and railroads, shops and mines and comfortable living quarters for workers could not be. It has been stored in ages past for present-day use, and is found so distributed throughout the earth as to make varied industries possible almost everywhere.

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#### II. The History of Coal

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##### a. Geologic formation.

- Nicolls: 32-45.  
 Showalter, W. J.: "Coal the Ally of American Industry," *Nat. Geog.*, 34:422-34.  
 Tonge: 6-46.  
 Van Hise: "Conservation," etc., 17-19.  
 —, "The Mystery and Marvel of Coal," *Leslie's Weekly*, 827ff.  
 Allen: 138.  
 Wilson: 1-7.

##### b. Early use in England. Note the close relation to the industrial revolution.

- Nicolls: 46-51.  
 Tonge: 1-6.  
 Ogg: "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," 90-2.  
 Wilson: 19-25.

##### c. Early use in the United States.

##### 1) Bituminous.

- Allen: 158.  
 Bishop and Keller: 155-6.  
 Bogart: 164, 306, 312.  
 Tonge: 194-38.  
 Van Hise: 19.  
 —, "Our Coal Supply Today," *Rev. of Rev.*, 41:198.  
 —, "Fuel Facts," 29, 26-9.

##### 2) Anthracite.

- Allen: 159.  
 Bogart: 151-362.  
 Nicolls: 57-60.  
 Tonge: 138-9.  
 Van Hise: 19.

##### 3) Lignite.

##### d. Discovery and development of new fields.

- Bishop & Keller: 158.  
 Mitchell, G. E.: "Our Coal Lands," *Nat. Geog.*, 21:441-51.  
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Sack, A. J.: "Russia's Undeveloped Riches," *World's Work*, 34:223-8 (maps).

——, "Fuel Facts": 18.

——, "The Coal Fields of Alaska," *Nat. Geog.*, 21:83-5.

——, "The Coal Production of the United States and Great Britain," *Lit. Dig.*, 63:42.

##### e. Production and transportation today. Note the control over practically all industries which is vested in the coal supply.

Allen: 139-57 (methods), 159-60 (transportation).

Bishop and Keller: 157-8.

Bogart: 281, 331, 393-4, 455, 460.

Cushing, Geo. N.: "The Coal Problem Emphasized," *Rev. of Revs.*, 55:165-70.

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——, "The Coal Resources of Alaska," *Ind.*, 69:567-8.

##### f. Supply and consumption; how long will the supply last?

##### 1) Fields and their supply.

- Allen: 157-9, 161-2.  
 Bishop & Keller: 158.  
 Bogart: 5-6.  
 Marshall: 79-85.  
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 Wilson: Chs. XVII, XXII, 88-109.  
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##### 2) Consumption.

##### a) Coal.

- Bishop and Keller: 156-7; Marshall: 79-82; Nicolls: 303-66; Tonge: 169-74; Van Hise: 23-5; Wilson: 119-125; —, "Our Coal Supply Today," *Rev. of Rev.*, 41:197-8; —, "The Advantages and Increasing Use of Pulverized Coal," *Sci. Am.*, 118:521; —, "Coal, Ally of American Industry," *Nat. Geog.*, 34:407; —, "Generating Current at the Mine," *Sci. Am.*, 108:157ff.

##### b) Coke and gas.

- Bogart: 390, 164; Marshall: 82; Nicolls: 356-76; Tonge: 174-5; Van Hise: 55-61; Wagner, F. U.: "Coal Gas—Residuals," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 80:316-9; —, "Our Coal Supply Today," *Rev. of Rev.*, 41:198-201; —, "Gas-Driven Motor Cars," *Lit. Dig.*, 56:18-9; —, "Coke Oven Ammonia," *Rev. of Rev.*, 54:433-4; —, "Coke By-Products," *Outlook*, 114:248-9.

##### c) Coal-tar products.

- Allen: 163-4; Jones, C.: "Coal and Its By-Products," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 78:116-7ff, 132ff, excellent maps; Lange, K. R.: "The By-Products of Coal-Gas Manufacture" (quite technical, but not difficult); Nicolls: 377-86; Porter, Horace C.: "Coal-Tar Products," *Dept. of In-*

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### 3) Estimates of the length of supply.

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### III. Economic Questions

#### 1. The conservation policy applied to the coal supply.

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Cushing, Geo. H.: "Save Forty Million Tons," Rev. of Rev., 58:291-5.  
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—, "Fuel Conservation on Railroads," Sci. Am., 114:465.  
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#### 2. Substitutes: Oil, water (sunshine).

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—, "To Save Coal by Using Daylight," Lit. Dig., 56:14.

#### 3. The relation of producers of staple necessities, upon which general production depends, to the producing and consuming public, as illustrated in recent strikes and the reaction to them.

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### IV. Political Questions

#### 1. Government control of production and transportation, as illustrated in the policy with regard to coal mines.

##### a. The dependency of the public on coal production.

Dymont, Colin: "The Coal Situation," Rev. of Rev., 57:523.  
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##### b. Should society control, perhaps own, the land which yields a commodity so necessary to public welfare? (The whole socialistic theory is involved. Explain the communistic method of property holding as practiced by primitive peoples, then private property ownership as now practiced in civilized countries. Then explain Marxian socialism, with its belief in the social ownership of the great land resources and the tools of production. Show how Marxian (conventional, orthodox) socialism would affect the coal industry. Compare coal production under private ownership with coal production under the Russian soviet government. Explanation?)

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- c. The coal fields were bought up by capital before people thought much about social ownership. At present the water-power of the nation is not all owned by private capital. Should the Government retain its water-power and thus insure social use of that power? What has been done in this direction?

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## V. Social Aspect

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—, "The Cost of Coal in Human Life," *Outl.*, 93:297-8.

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—, "The Telephone in a Mine," *Lit. Dig.*, 52:278-9.

## IX. PETROLEUM

### I. Introduction

What makes motoring, on land or water, a possibility? The same substance in somewhat different forms cleans our clothes, runs our battleships, perfumes our cold cream and lights the Christmas tree. It made Rockefeller a rich man. What is this product, and whence comes it?

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#### 1. Discovery and introduction of petroleum products.

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Bogart: 283, 322, 358, 393, 402, 405-7, 408.

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Herrick: 487-8.

McBeth: 44-79 (ff to 125, special).

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Tower: 20-62.

Walker, G. T.: 10-5.

#### 2. The development and history of the Standard Oil Company—a great American corporation, which may be considered a type of large-scale business organizations.

Bishop and Keller: 163-5.

Bogart: 306.

Dewey: 190, 192, 199-200.

Paxson: 310-12 and 166-8.

Tower: 82-107, 157-75.

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III. Economic Problems

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—, "Storing Gasoline in Closed Tanks," Sci. Am., 118:24.

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 —, "The Nation and Its Oil Reserves," *Sci. Am.*, 115:568.

### 3. Government control of corporations acting in restraint of trade. Standard Oil and the Sherman Law. The Supreme Court stands for—

- a. Social control of business. b. But control only when business is run in such a way as to interfere with legitimate rights, common sense and a fair deal to all.

- Carter, C. F.: "An Effective United States," *World's Work*, 31:57-62.  
 Dewey: 199-200.  
 Hart: "Actual Government," 484-6.  
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 —, "The Standard Oil Decision: An Interpretation," *Outl.*, 98:141-2.  
 —, "Theodore Roosevelt, the Standard Oil Decision and After," *Outl.*, 98:239-40.

## X. GOLD, SILVER AND COPPER

### I. Introduction

The money metals and the money question—a vital question for every one. The metals of beauty—the metals of Cellini and Ghiberti—and of value—bear, also, a close relation to the cost of living. Copper is invaluable in the arts and sciences, in industry and in war.

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 —, "The Gold Supply of the Warring Nations," *Lit. Dig.*, 50:666-8.  
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 —, "Is There a Mountain of Gold?" *Lit. Dig.*, 44:66-7.

#### 2. Successive sources of supply.

- Allen: 185-91, 201-4, 6, 7.  
 Bishop and Keller: 173-4, 178-9, 182-6.  
 Bogart: 159, 167-70, 206, 222-3, 238, 283-4, 307-29, 352, 393-4.  
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#### 3. The variation in supply. Sources of gain and loss.

- Bishop and Keller: (Processes) 176-9.  
 Bogart: 455.  
 Brace: 41-6.  
 Meade: 31-40 (methods of extraction).

- Penrose: *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, 80:182-3.  
 Tappan: 39-48, 48-57, 65-76 (methods of extraction).  
 Van Hise: 88-9, 98-102.  
*World's Almanac*.  
 —, "Silver at Its Highest Price Since 1890," *Lit. Dig.*, 55:75-8.  
 —, "As Silver Goes on Rising," *Nation*, 105:353-4.

#### 4. The present available supply and production.

- Brace: 46-56.  
 Keys, C. M.: "Ten Years of Industrial America," *World's Work*, 21:13896.  
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 Penrose: 186-91.  
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 Stratton, G. H.: "A Mining Camp Without a Peer," *Sci. Am. Sup.*, 80:241ff.  
 Thomas, D. H.: "America's Losses Through Waste and Mismanagement of Resources," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:214-5.  
 —, "Gold Production in This Country," *Lit. Dig.*, 52:1123.  
 —, "The Output of Gold," *Ind.*, 74:1, 118.  
 —, "The Master Cause of High Prices," *Ind.*, 74:11, 1434-5.  
 —, "Vast Profits for the Mines," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:535.  
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 —, "Our Metal After Steel," *Lit. Dig.*, 56-61.

### III. Uses

#### 1. As money.

- Adams: *Comm. Geog.*, 34-5.  
 Bishop & Keller: 222.  
 Herrick: 7-8, 47, 53, 64, 83, 127, 146, 287, 312.  
 Magruder: 42, 79-80, 146ff.  
 Burch and Nearing: 123-4.

#### 2. In the arts and sciences.

- Allen: 204.  
 Bishop and Keller: 181.  
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 —, "The Use of Metals 6000 Years Ago," *Sci. Am.*, 103:382.  
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- Burch and Nearing: 9, 223-6.  
 "Standard Ancient History Texts."

#### 2. What modern metal and paper money is.

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 —, "Bi-metallism Again," *Rev. of Rev.*, 53:624.  
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- Conant, C. A.: "The Return to Hard Money," *Century*, 86:439-56.  
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## Comment upon Committee's Report

### NOTE

I have not been able to give adequate and proper attention to the scheme of study proposed by this Committee for the grades below the High School. Even if I had had the time and opportunity, I doubt very much my fitness to pass upon the problems involved, or at least to speak at all authoritatively and with assurance. This is so because for many years my interests and studies have been in the field of advanced University work and I have not tried to obtain anything like expert acquaintance with school work, especially in the first eight or nine grades. I have acquiesced in this report as far as work for the grades is concerned, not from knowledge, but from faith in the knowledge and expert guidance of others. In making this disclaimer of responsibility, I am not, however, intending in the least degree to reflect upon the conclusions of the rest of the Committee. I simply do not desire to pretend to knowledge that I do not possess, or to have made investigations and studies that I have not made.

On the general scheme of study for the high school I think I am more entitled to have a decided opinion and I feel fairly confident that the plan presented by the Committee meets the desires of the thoughtful and progressive high school teachers of the country. I hope to be able in a later number of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to explain briefly the relationship of this report to the reports of other Committees of the American Historical Association, of which I have been a member, at least, to explain the relationships and historical development as they appear to me.

A. C. McLAUGHLIN.

### NOTE TO NINTH GRADE STUDY OF AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

The syllabus as here submitted impresses me as too comprehensive in character, with a tendency to over-emphasize the purely informational side. In my judgment, it would be entirely in harmony with the brief statement of the work for this year, which was set forth in the tentative program of the committee (p. 91 of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for March, 1921), to confine the survey of industries to not more than four of the ten covered in the syllabus (the selection to depend upon the locality), and make these serve as a medium for emphasizing our national and community activities. The industries selected would serve rather as types of the economic activities of the American people and would illustrate the close relations between our political, social and economic life, instead of attempting as here to portray that life in such detail.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON.

KENSINGTON, MD., Dec. 30, 1920.

### EDITOR THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:—

I am sorry that the lateness of the hour made impossible discussion of Dr. Knowlton's summary of the proposed course in 19th Century History for Grade X and Miss Tuell's questions in regard to that course.

I was struck with what seemed a contradiction between Professor Johnson's statement that "history for history's sake was, as far as possible, the point of view of the Committee," and Dr. Knowlton's proposed study of the 19th Century (and after) as "The Growth of Democracy." It seems to me the two are contradictory if not incompatible. I would be sorry to see this Committee of the American Historical Association put out a course of study in history from any other than the historical point of view emphasized by Professor Johnson.

"How it really was," is one way it has been well put. Any departure from that point of view in history teaching is too dangerous to be seriously considered. It would be most unfortunate to give opportunity for the accusation that history was to become propaganda. Some of the men still in active service in the schools can tell of very common danger of religious dissension, even propaganda arising from history teaching in American schools.

In some of our cities and states today the teaching of recent or current history, chiefly as the "Growth of Democracy," would precipitate violent capital and labor discussions with the possibility of most unfortunate interference in our schools a teaching by outside organizations. Perhaps this contradiction is more apparent than real, and I am sure it was not intended. I am sure that it is not necessary to resort to even an indirect propaganda for the cause of good citizenship, or any other cause.

We should continue to teach history as history, to try to recreate some appreciation of the past, including its points of view as well as its problems.

Very sincerely yours,  
 EDMUND S. NOYES,  
 Central High School,  
 Washington, D. C.

MARCH 17, 1921.

### EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

Doctor Samuel B. Harding is to be commended for his dissent from the recommendations of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, as expressed in his brief note in the March number of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

The proposed course of study in history for the first six grades marks a distinct retrogression from the standards established by the Report of the Committee of Eight.

To Dr. Harding's criticisms, with all of which I am in hearty accord, as well as with his constructive suggestions, I would add the following:

Not only does the proposed course devote too much time to the survey of American history in the third, fourth and fifth years, but it places before the teachers of third-year children a problem impossible of proper solution. Prof. Henry Johnson anticipates this criticism in part when he says: "Here the objection will at once be raised that children in the third grade have not had the geography needed to make Europe or Europeans mean anything. The answer is that, with the aid of a globe and a Mercator map of the world, all that is necessary for the purpose can be taught, for it has been taught in a single lesson."

In their anxiety to accommodate the new course to the deplorable fact that we are a nation of sixth graders, the committee has fallen into the oft-repeated error of believing that the mere parrot-like ability of children to absorb and give back facts totally unrelated to their experience or interest is in itself sufficient justification for teaching such facts.

The best modern courses of study in geography do not provide for the beginning of map reading before the latter part of the fourth year. Children may not properly be expected to interpret maps with any degree of accuracy before the fifth year. The suggestion that both the globe and the map of the world on the Mercator projection be introduced to third-grade children at the same time is the height of pedagogical absurdity.

This portion, at least, of the recommendations of the Committee savors too much of the conclusions of a group of specialists, separated in experience, interest and understanding from the children who are to be taught and from the teachers who are to teach them.

Too long have courses of study been fostering the organization of the material of instruction in the earlier years of the elementary course into distinct sub-divisions, each one labelled as History, Geography, etc. There is a common body of knowledge resulting from the organized experience of the race which is the child's rightful heritage. Eventually this fact will be recognized, even by the makers of courses of study.

IRVING H. HART,  
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## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In discussing "Moral Factors in Our Japanese Policy" (*Asia* for March), Mr. J. O. P. Bland says: "The effects of the War have undoubtedly produced a wave of restlessness in discipline and incivility amongst the town-bred laboring classes. . . . While there is as yet no sign of any effective organization on the part of labor, it is undoubtedly true that industry has produced and is producing a type of workman very different to those of old Japan . . . sordid commercialism has led to spiritual decay . . . gone are the old restraints of samurai tradition . . . the old virtues of courtesy, dignity and self-control."

In the January *Nineteenth Century* appears an article on "The House of Commons of Today," by Lieut.-Colonel Gerald B. Hurst, K.C., M.P., in which he says: "The House of Commons, except for the delay enjoined by the Parliament Act, which, indeed, merely gives the House of Commons an excuse for retaining power without appealing to the people is now absolutely supreme, the power of the House of Lords having shrunk to the power of delaying legislation for two years. . . . The House of Commons . . . has eaten up and destroyed all competitors and be-

come the sole depository of political power under the Constitution and yet, instead of earning the respect which one might imagine would belong to such absolutism, it is suffering from a want of confidence such as never before has been attached to it in its history."

The author explains the cause of this by a reference to Chapter XIII of Disraeli's *Coningsby*, where the depository of power is declared to be always unpopular, all people combining to resist it.

Herbert Adams Gibbons has an article on "The Internal Whirlpool. A Complete Reversal for President Harding," in the March *Century*, which is worth a careful reading, though, doubtless, no one will accept the conclusions presented *in toto*. According to Mr. Gibbons, no one thing done by the present administration can be continued by the incoming one; Mr. Harding's first task will be to end the state of war with Germany and Austria and to resume diplomatic relations with Turkey; then he must maintain intact the Monroe Doctrine and the traditional policy of George Washington: he must end the policy of dealing with Mexico through unofficial envoys appointed by and responsible to the Senate; he must pay attention to South American trade; and he must formulate a policy of watchfulness toward Japan. "The greatest privilege of President Harding," he concludes, "is his opportunity to make us what we ardently talked about during the War, but never were, 100 per cent. Americans."

In discussing "Religion in England after the War," in the January *Yale Review*, W. F. Inge pays much attention to the general social conditions, which, he says, are debased by the newly-rich reckless spendthrifts and by the unpatriotic workmen, who demand maximum pay for minimum work. Parliament, elected in a paroxysm of greed and vindictiveness, is, he says, quite unable to handle the situation, the House of Commons being on a distressingly low level, intellectually and morally, while "the economic sequelæ of the War are perplexing and astonishing, financially. Anyone visiting this country would suppose we had come into a vast fortune instead of having lost one. There is every appearance of abundant and widely diffused prosperity." The ruined classes have retired out of sight—they have no friends and no hope; the new rich are flaunting their gains and the workmen, who were meditating revolutionary schemes when the war broke out, find themselves in a position to hold a pistol at the head of society and to make constantly increasing demands, which the government, destitute of all moral authority and in terror of revolution, concedes as soon as they are made. Democracy is at an end in England; we are at the mercy of predatory gangs, who dictate terms to the government and then tear them up, sending in fresh requisitions."

### Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

*Syllabus for European History* in Tenth Grade will appear in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for May, 1921.

*Syllabus for United States History* in Eleventh Grade will appear in the June issue.

Order extra copies in advance

## A National Council for the Social Studies

The emotional interest in Americanization and training for citizenship has about run its course. Thoughtful people have taken stock of the movement and concluded that there is little difference between education and training for citizenship. They realized that the work of the school system, including the institutions of higher learning, may be made more useful than heretofore; and that the efforts at education which were inaugurated during the war revealed weaknesses which we are not quite able to correct. They are ready to settle down to a careful examination of our educational machinery with a view to its constructive reorganization.

One of the lessons that we seem to have learned is the fact that the pursuit of the social studies needs a good deal more attention than it has heretofore received. But it is not certain that all have learned that the social studies constitute a group of subjects which must be viewed as a group and not as separate disciplines, wholly independent of each other. There still remains a tendency among the historians, economists, political scientists and sociologists to work too independently of each other. Although the school program is already full, representatives of these fields of university scholarship are insisting on separate recognition in it. The fact is not clear enough that those who wish to improve the work in the social studies must ask the school administrators how much time may properly be granted to them as a group, and then prepare in coöperation to use this allotment of time as fully and usefully as possible.

A study of the situation made during the year 1920 revealed, however, that the most progressive workers in all of the fields commonly referred to by those who use the term social studies are ready to meet their colleagues on equal terms and seek a solution of the educational problems, which may rightly be said to belong to the training of the rising citizen through a study of our political, economic and social organization with the historical evolution of this organization. There is no doubt that the time is ripe for a national association with a view to effecting such coöperation.

A number of teachers on the Pacific coast, under the leadership of Miss Olive Thompson and Mr. R. L. Ashley, recently considered the organization of the teachers of the social studies for the purpose of establishing a journal and the propagation of sound principles in this field. But the projected journal was given up because of financial difficulties and because it became evident that the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* was already available for the publication of such discussions as could be provided. With the abandonment of the plan for a journal, the movement halted.

At Teachers College, Mr. E. U. Rugg and Professor J. M. Gambrill recently called a conference to discuss the desirability of organizing a council in coöperation with the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The outcome of this conference, and of an inquiry sent out by Mr. Rugg, was the calling of a meeting of those interested in the matter at Atlantic City on March 3, 1921, during the recent meetings of the Department of Superintendence. At this meeting a temporary organization was effected. Professor A. E. McKinley, Editor of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, was selected as

President; Professor R. M. Tryon, of the University of Chicago, Vice-President; Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, Secretary-Treasurer; and Mr. E. U. Rugg, of Teachers College, Assistant Secretary. In the temporary constitution, adopted at that meeting, the name "National Council of Teachers of the Social Studies" was adopted, and the purpose of the organization was stated as follows: "To bring about the association and coöperation of teachers of social studies (history, government, economics, sociology, etc.), and of administrators, supervisors, teachers of education and others interested in obtaining the maximum results in education for citizenship through social studies."

This meeting and temporary organization had in mind only the preparations which must be made during the next year for a more permanent institution, through which all persons who are really working in the field of the social studies may find coöperation convenient. The officers were elected for a year, and the constitution was adopted for a year. The President is to appoint an Advisory Board of fifteen members, and four members are to be selected to coöperate with the officers as an Executive Committee. It will be the duty of these persons to canvass the field of the social studies; draft a constitution to be submitted to the next meeting; nominate officers; and generally to prepare the way for an organization which will be representative and capable of performing functions which need to be performed if the work of our schools and institutions of higher education is to be served most effectively.

The temporary officers hope that those who read this will consider the embryonic movement a useful one; and will wish to coöperate in it. All who are interested are invited to send their names, with the annual dues (\$1.00), to the Secretary-Treasurer, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City, as soon as convenient. The movement needs support and encouragement; it needs particularly the advice and guidance of those who wish to make the social studies useful. Those who do not wish now to become members are urged to write to the Secretary, stating their views on the desirability of the movement. Further plans for the Council will be reported in the May number of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from January 29, to February 26, 1921

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Bennett, Helen B., and others, Editors. *Historical readings; an introduction to the study of American history*. N. Y.: Rand, McNally. 440 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Bolton, Reginald P. *New York City in Indian possession*. N. Y.: Museum of the American Indian. Heye Foundation.
- Boyer, Charles S. *The old houses in Camden, N. J.* Camden, N. J.: S. Chew and Sons. Privately printed.
- California and the Japanese; a compilation of arguments advertised in newspapers by the American Committee of Justice in opposition to the Alien Land Law. Oakland, Cal.: The American Committee of Justice, 1904 Adeline St. 16 pp.

- Coy, Owen C. Guide to the county archives of California. Sacramento, Cal.: Cal. Hist. Survey Commission. 623 pp.
- Cushing, Frank H. Zuffi breadstuff. N. Y.: Museum of the American Indian. Heye Foundation. 673 pp.
- Luttig, John C. Journal of a fur-trading expedition on the Upper Missouri; 1812-1813. St. Louis: Missouri Hist. Soc. 192 pp. (15 pp. bibl.) \$6.00.
- Mace, W. H., and Bogardus, Frank S. Mace-Bogardus school history. N. Y.: Rand, McNally. 556 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Neuman, Fred G. The story of Paducah [Kentucky]. Paducah, Ky.: Young Pr. Co. 104 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Owen, William O., Editor. The medical department of the United States Army during the period of the Revolution (1776-1786). N. Y.: Paul B. Hoeber, 69 E. 59th St. 226 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Piper, Fred S. Lexington, the birthplace of American liberty; a handbook. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Hist. Soc. 44 pp. 25 cents.
- Woofter, Thomas J., Jr. Negro migration; changes in rural organization and population of the Cotton Belt. N. Y.: W. D. Gray, 106 Seventh Ave. 195 pp. (5½ p. bibl.) \$1.50.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Kidd, Beresford J., Editor. Documents illustrative of the history of the Church. Vol. I to A. D. 313. N. Y.: Macmillan. 282 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Mooney, William W. Travel among the ancient Romans. Boston: Badger. 178 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Sabin, Frances E. Classical associations of places in Italy. Madison, Wis.: [Author.] 405 Henry St. 512 pp. \$3.00.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Adams, George B. The origin of the English constitution; enl. edition. New Haven: Yale Univ. Pr. 408 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Hammond, J. L. B., and Hammond, B. B. The town-laborer; 1760-1832. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 342 pp. (3¼ pp. bibl.) \$2.25, net.
- Hogan, James. Ireland in the European system. Vol. I. 1500-1557. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 237 pp. \$5.00, net.
- Rees, J. F. A social and industrial history of England, 1815-1918. N. Y.: Dutton. 197 pp. (3½ pp. bibl.) \$2.00, net.
- Sarkar, Jadunath. History of Aurangzib; based on original sources. 4 vols. Vol. 1, Reign of Shah Jehan; Vol. 2, War of Succession; Vol. 3, Northern India, 1658-1681; Vol. 4, Southern India, 1646-1689. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. (17 pp. bibl.) each \$3.00, net.
- Sarkar, Jadunath. Shivaaji and his times. 2d ed. rev. and enl. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 459 pp. (10 pp. bibl.) \$3.50, net.
- Studies in Mughal India; 2d edition, with 12 new essays. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 313 pp. \$1.75, net.
- Sayville, Marshall H. The earliest notices concerning the conquest of India by Cortés in 1519. N. Y.: Museum of the American Indian. Heye Foundation. 54 pp.
- The goldsmith's art in ancient Mexico. N. Y.: Museum of the American Indian. Heye Foundation. 264 pp.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Dubnow, Semen M. History of the Jews in Russia and Poland from the earliest times to the present day. Vol. 3. From the accession of Nicholas II to the present day. Phila.: Jewish Pub. Soc. of America. 411 pp. (30½ pp. bibl.) \$2.50.
- Durham, M. Edith. Twenty years of Balkan tangle. N. Y.: Putnam. 295 pp. \$3.75, net.
- Heifetz, Elias. The slaughter of the Jews in Ukraine in 1919. N. Y.: Seltzer. 408 pp. \$2.00, net.
- International Conciliation. The communist party in Russia and its relations to the third international and to the Russian soviets. Part I. N. Y.: Am. Assn. for Internat. Conciliation, 407 W. 117th St. 53 pp.

- Lockitt, Charles H. The relations of French and English society, 1763-1793. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 135 pp. (7 pp. bibl.) \$2.50, net.
- Smith, Preserved. The age of the reformation. N. Y.: Holt. 861 pp. (66 pp. bibl.) \$6.00, net.
- Wells, H. G. Russia in the shadows. N. Y.: Doran. 179 pp. \$1.50, net.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Ames, Fisher, Jr. American Red Cross work among the French people. N. Y.: Macmillan. 178 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Gleaves, Albert. A history of the [U. S.] transport service [in the world war]. N. Y.: Doran. 284 pp. \$6.00, net.
- Guernsey, Irwin S., Compiler. A reference history of the world war. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 399 pp. (2¼ pp. bibl.) \$6.00, net.
- Hansen, Marcus L. Welfare campaigns in Iowa. Iowa City, Ia.: State Hist. Soc. 320 pp. (41 pp. notes and bibl.) \$2.00, net.
- Herr, Charles R. Company F history, 319th Infantry. Somerville, N. Y.: Unionist Gazette Assn. 103 pp. \$3.50.
- Hurd, Archibald. A merchant fleet at war. N. Y.: Cunard Steamship Co. 139 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Jellicoe, J. R., Viscount. The crisis of the naval war. N. Y.: Doran. 331 pp. \$7.50, net.
- Still, John. A prisoner in Turkey. N. Y.: John Lane. 250 pp.
- U. S. General Staff, War Plans Division, Historical Branch. Economic mobilization of the United States for the war of 1917. [HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, War Reprints No. 9]. Phila.: McKinley Pub. Co., 1621 Ransstead St. 16 pp. 20 cents, net.
- Y. M. C. A., Natl. War Work Council. Summary of world war work of the American Y. M. C. A. N. Y.: Y. M. C. A., 347 Madison Ave. 239 pp. privately printed.

## MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Bishop, Mildred C., and Robinson, E. K. Practical map exercises in medieval and modern European history. Boston: Ginn & Co. 32 pp. 56 cents, net.
- Davis, W. S., and McKendrick, N. S. A history of medieval and modern Europe for secondary schools. Rev. ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 560 pp. (6 pp. bibl.) \$2.00, net.
- Guérard, Albert L. French civilisation from its origins to the close of the Middle Ages. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 328 pp. (2 pp. bibl.) \$5.00, net.
- Thatcher, O. J., and McNeal, E. H. Europe in the Middle Age. N. Y.: Scribner. 547 pp. (6 pp. bibl.) \$3.00, net.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Cambridge Public Library, compiler. List of books in the Cambridge Pub. Lib. relating to the Pilgrim Fathers and the early settlement of Plymouth, Mass. Cambridge, Mass.: Cambridge Pub. Lib. 16 pp.
- Ditchett, S. H. Historic costumes; their influence on modern fashions. N. Y.: The Drygoods Economist. 20 pp. 50 cents.
- Fox, Dixon R. Harper's atlas of American history. N. Y.: Harper. 181 pp. \$2.75, net.
- Graves, Joseph W. The renaissance of Korea. Phila.: Jaisohn & Co., 1524 Chestnut St. 74 pp. \$1.35.
- Keigwin, Albert E. Return of the Pilgrim fathers; an historical pageant. N. Y.: Bd. of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A. 24 pp. 25 cents.
- Mahoney, John J. Training teachers for Americanization. A course of study. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 62 pp. (9 pp. bibl.) 10 cents.
- Takenob, Y. The Japan Yearbook (1920-1921). N. Y.: Dixie Business Bk. Shop, 41 Liberty St. 810 pp. (7 pp. bibl.) \$7.00.
- University of Texas. The Texas history teachers' bulletin. Austin, Tex.: Univ. of Texas. 50 pp.

## BIOGRAPHY

- Lee, Ida. Captain Bligh's second voyage to the South Sea, 1791-1793. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 290 pp. \$4.25, net.
- Menzies, Lucy. Saint Columba of Iona; a study of his life, his times and his influence. N. Y.: Dutton. 231 pp. (3¾ pp. bibl.) \$2.50, net.
- Iswolsky, Alexander. Recollections of a foreign minister. [Author was Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Russian Empire, 1906-1910, and Ambassador to France until the Russian revolution.] Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 303 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Kemal, Ismail, Bey. The memoirs of Ismail Kemal Bey. N. Y.: Dutton. 410 pp. \$7.00 net.
- Coggeshall, E. W. The assassination of Lincoln. Chicago: W. M. Hill, 22 E. Washington St. 106 pp. \$2.50, net.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Alley, J., and Blachly, F. F. Elements of government; with history and government of Oklahoma. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill Co., 432 Fourth Ave. 360 pp. \$1.30, net.
- Guthrie, William D. The Covenant of the League of Nations . . . a review. N. Y.: (Author.) 28 Park Ave. 82 pp.
- Hammond, J. H., and Jenks, J. W. Great American issues. N. Y.: Scribner. 274 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Martin, Charles E. The policy of the United States as regards intervention. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 173 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Mills, Lewis S. Citizenship and government in the United States. N. Y.: Hinds, Hayden and Eldridge. 204 pp. \$1.00.
- Nearing, Scott. The American Empire. N. Y.: Rand School of Social Science. 266 pp. 50 cents.
- Wood, Leonard. America's duty, as shown by our history. Chicago: Reilly & Lee. 252 pp. \$1.25 net.

## List of Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Land Registers of Western Asia Under the Seleucids. W. L. Westermann (*Classical Philology*, January).
- The Princes and the Senatorial Provinces. Donald McFayden (*Classical Philology*, January).
- When Did Christ Die? Luchsius Semler (*Ecclesiastical Review*, March).
- The *Latina Colonia* of Livy, XL. 43. L. R. Taylor (*Classical Philology*, January).
- The "Alimenta" of Nerva and His Successors. Alice M. Ashley (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Forty Years of a Diplomat's Life (continued). Baron Rosen (*Saturday Evening Post*, February 26).
- The Last of the Hapsburgs. Theodore von Sosnosky (*Quarterly Review*, January). I, Emperor Francis Joseph; II, The Archduke Franz Ferdinand; III, Karl the First and Last.
- Bethmann-Hollweg: Personal Recollections of the Man and His Policy. Sir Thomas Barclay (*Fortnightly Review*, February).
- Japan's Far Eastern Policy. M. Soko (*Fortnightly Review*, February).
- The Great Political Crisis in Europe. Guiglielmo Ferrero (*Atlantic Monthly*, March).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Collegiate Churches. Rev. E. W. Watson (*Church Quarterly Review*, January).
- A Butler's Serjeantry. J. H. Round (*English Historical Review*, January).
- A Mention of Scutage in the Year 1100. W. A. Morris (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Two Earliest Municipal Charters of Coventry. James Tait (*English Historical Review*, January).

- Maurice of Rievaulx. F. M. Powicke (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Parliament of Lincoln of 1316. Hilda Johnstone (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Battle of Edgehill. Godfrey Davies (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Five Indentures Between Edward IV and Warwick the Kingmaker. Cora L. Scofield (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Henry VIII and St. Thomas Becket. J. H. Pollen (*The Month*, February).
- Verses on the Exchequer in the Fifteenth Century. M. Dorothy George (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Early History of Jamaica, 1511-1536. Irene Wright (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Authorship of Townshend's "Historical Collections." J. E. Neale (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Beginnings of the *English Historical Review* (*English Historical Review*, January).
- South African Memories. John H. Hammond (*Scribner's*, March).
- Two Dominion Statesmen: I, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, by Edward Porritt; II, General Louis Botha, by Sir Lionel Phillips (*Quarterly Review*, January).

## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- Passchendaele, 1917. J. H. Davidson (*Nineteenth Century and After*, February).
- The Man Who Prepared Victory: M. Théophile Delcassé. Stéphane Lauzanne (*National Review*, February).
- Michigan War Legislation, 1917. Charles H. Landrum (*Michigan History Magazine*, October).
- Echoes of the Paris Peace Conference. L. J. Maxse (*National Review*, February).
- Political and Social Reconstruction in France. Raymond L. Buell (*American Political Science Review*, February).

## UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Aid to Education by the National Government. Jonathan L. Snyder (*Michigan History Magazine*, October).
- Archives Hall Planned by Congress. Lily L. Rowe (*D. A. R. Magazine*, March). Contains some account of the Federal archives.
- The Control of Foreign Relations. Quincy Wright (*American Political Science Review*, February).
- State Rights and Federal Power. William P. Bynum (*American Law Review*, January-February).
- Legislative Compacts with Foreign Nations. Albert H. Washburn (*American Law Review*, January-February).
- The Minnesota Historical Society. Solon J. Buck (*Michigan History Magazine*, October).
- The Pilgrim and the Melting Pot. Carl R. Fish (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).
- The First Push Westward of the Albany Traders. Helen Brosnan (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).
- Washington as Surveyor and Map-Maker. P. Lee Phillips (*D. A. R. Magazine*, March).
- Potomac Landings, III. Paul Wiltstach (*Country Life*, February).
- The Pocket in Indiana History. Thomas J. de la Hunt (*Indiana Magazine of History*, December).
- The History of Madison (Indiana). Compiled by the Women's Club of Madison (*Indiana Magazine of History*, December).
- Jane Grey Swisshelm: Agitator. Lester B. Shippee (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).
- The Missouri Tavern. Walter B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
- A Century of Missouri Agriculture. F. B. Mumford (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
- A Century of Education in Missouri. C. A. Phillips (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
- One Hundred Years of Banking in Missouri. Breckinridge Jones (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
- My Brother Theodore Roosevelt. Corinne Roosevelt Robinson (*Scribner's*, March). II. Green fields and foreign faring.
- History of Taxation in Iowa, 1910-1920. John E. Brindley (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, January).



Historical Activities in the Trans-Mississippi Northwest, 1919-1920. John C. Parish (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).

Joys and Sorrows of an Emigrant Family. Joseph Ruff (*Michigan History Magazine*, April-July).

The Republican Party Originated in Pittsburgh. Charles W. Dahlinger (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, January).

Mirabeau Buonaparte Lamar (continued). A. V. Christian (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, January).

A Campaigner for Lincoln. Ervin S. Chapman (*Collier's*, February 12).

The Lincoln They Saw. Garret Newkirk and G. B. Wallis (*Outlook*, February 9). I, A Reminiscence of a Lincoln-Douglas Debate; II, A Reminiscence of Lincoln's First Inauguration.

Race Legislation in South Carolina since 1865. Francis B. Simkins (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).

William Henry Ruffner: Reconstruction Statesman of Virginia. C. Chilton Pearson (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).

The Church in the United States, 1870-1920. Rev. Peter Guilday (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).

Fifty Years of Negro Citizenship as Qualified by the United States Supreme Court. Carter G. Woodson (*Journal of Negro History*, January).

Detroit Commercial Organizations. William Stocking (*Michigan History Magazine*, April-July).

The Shingle Weavers. George M. James (*Quarterly Journal of the University of North Dakota*, January). Essay on the International Shingle Weavers' Union.

A Cleveland View of 1920. George F. Parker (*Forum*, January).

My Brother, Theodore Roosevelt. Corinne Roosevelt Robinson (*Scribner's*, February). The Nursery and its Deities.

Santo Domingo: A Study in Benevolent Imperialism. Randolph G. Adams (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).

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Number 5.

PHILADELPHIA, MAY, 1921.

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# The Historical Outlook

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume XII.  
Number 5.

PHILADELPHIA, MAY, 1921

\$2.00 a year.  
25 cents a copy.

## History Teaching in Germany

BY PROFESSOR R. W. KELSEY, HAVERFORD COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

I feel fortunate as a reader of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to have had access to the various articles contributed in recent months by those who have traveled recently in Europe. From England to Greece, from Spain to Czecho-Slovakia, we readers have been led by skilled guides, competent to see and evaluate things of interest to students of history.

From my own contribution I shall omit my observation of general conditions in Germany, for those have been described vividly and accurately by Doctor Textor in the January number of this paper. While in Germany in the fall of 1920, I made such inquiry as I was able into the teaching of history during and since the war. Before leaving the country I made arrangements with my former teacher, Doctor Adolph Gerber, retired, to send out for me a questionnaire to various teachers and professors of history. Most of the material that follows has come to my hand recently as a result of that questionnaire. Names of my informants are omitted from this article as stipulated when the questions were sent out.

### I. EFFECTS OF WAR ON SCHOOL HISTORY CURRICULA

#### a. Saxony

The material immediately following emanated from the Ministry of Education in Saxony and refers to the courses of instruction in the higher schools, the Gymnasien, Realgymnasien, and Oberrealschulen, which take children of about nine years of age and carry them through a course of nine years.

In the first months of the war provision was made for extra work in history and civics for those whose course of study was shortened by reason of army service. Thus the following, from a decree dated Dresden, February 4, 1915: "The distribution of work in the higher schools of Saxony was such that the many young men who left school three years before graduation, with the privilege of serving only one year in the army instead of two, received no instruction in German history during their last two years in school, and left without sufficient and sound knowledge of the history of their own country. To meet the most satisfactory deepening of the general patriotic feeling a weekly extra recitation in history is to be introduced during the last two years. It is to be used for a review of important parts of German history and for an introduction to civics. To gain this extra time a recitation in ancient or modern languages or in mathematics is to be dropped."

In another decree, issued at Dresden, December 80, 1915, teachers are recommended to teach the history of their own country most fully, but to beware of nationalistic (jingoistic) onesidedness. On the latter point the following comment was given—golden words for war time: "Though in the graduating class ample time should be given to this history of the most recent time, and especially also to the treatment of the world war ('Weltkrieg'), the advice of short-sighted zealots should be declined who would prefer to see the instruction in history . . . limited to the most recent German history and to have the national viewpoint emphasized more and more exclusively. Such instruction would soon lead to a regrettable onesidedness of historical judgment. Also the new Prussian decree discountenances such narrow-minded nationalism. . . . A correct and vivid comprehension of the nature of one's own people, and of their life and work, cannot be obtained without a sufficient knowledge of the great world historical events in the life of other civilized nations that have influenced the intellectual and political development of our nation. Hence Greece and Rome, the nations of medieval civilization, and of the Renaissance, and not least also the English, French and other nations of modern times, with their political and intellectual life, must retain a due place in the instruction of the higher classes in history."

In a decree dated at Dresden, May 8, 1916, the following work in history is prescribed for the last six years in the higher schools:

"*Untertertia*: German history, from the foundation of the Frankish kingdom (Chlodwig) to the close of the Thirty Years' War." 2 hours per week.

"*Obertertia*: German history, 1648-1815." 2 hours per week.

"*Untersekunda*: German history, 1815 to the present." 2 hours per week.

"*Obersekunda*: Ancient history. German history to the death of Conrad I. In ancient history the state of civilization is to be made most prominent. Political events are to be treated in detail only at the climaxes of history. All possibilities are to be exhausted to develop political education and historical judgment, according to the comprehension of the class. Clear definitions of the various forms of the state; effects of the state of civilization and the characteristic qualities of a nation upon the course of its political history; inward causes of its rise



fall; exposition of larger historical correlations; historical parallels and parallels from the history of civilization; antiquity the root of our civilization." 8 hours per week.

*"Unterprima:* German history, 919-1786. The knowledge acquired in the former classes is to be deepened and also raised to higher viewpoints. . . . Foreign history to be treated as far as it is important for German history. Colonial history to be given due attention." 8 hours per week.

*"Oberprima:* German history, from 1786 to the present. Manner of treatment as in *Unterprima*. A thorough treatment of the world war, embracing the events leading up to it, its course, and the duties it imposes upon us as a nation and as individuals, is to be duly considered as one of the principal objects of the whole educational course." 8 hours per week.

From the above outline of courses it seems obvious that the history taught in the higher schools of Saxony continues to be much more nationalistic in scope than in the corresponding grades of American schools.

To those school officials in America who keep insisting on a decrease in the number of history hours, it may be enlightening to know that in Saxony since the war (by a decree of February 11, 1919), the number of history hours is increased by two, five and six, respectively, in the *Oberrealschulen*, *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien*. Geography is given a still greater increase, "to widen the horizon of the future citizen and to promote his comprehension of the tasks of national and international economies."

#### b. Prussia

In Prussia (and in other German states from which official data have not been secured) there was the problem of remodeling historical and other instruction to meet the new political situation after the revolution of November 9, 1918. On November 14, 1919, the Prussian Minister of Education warned the teachers in the schools not to foster any "partisan spirit" among their pupils.

In a second decree, issued at Berlin, December 6, 1919, the same minister declared: "Since the textbooks of history which have been used hitherto do not meet the present requirements, a thorough recasting of these books will be necessary, which can be done only after the school conference of the empire. During the transition period I decree that the textbooks introduced hitherto are not to be used in class instruction any longer and that the pupils should no longer be required to buy them."

The enforcement of this regulation apparently was difficult. (The present writer has definite knowledge that in one part of Prussia at least the decree has not been obeyed to this day.) As a result, on April 8, 1920, an explanatory decree stated: "The decree of December 6th does not forbid the purchase of the textbooks hitherto employed, nor, of course, their use at home in the preparation of lessons."

While the history of royal and imperial Germany could not be quickly revamped in the textbooks, it was at least possible to instruct the German youth in the mysteries of republican government. Hence

a decree of September 4, 1920: "It is necessary to acquaint the pupils with the foundations of the new state. It is, therefore, decreed that in all institutions of learning for male and female pupils the introduction of the pupils into the constitution of the Empire should be undertaken at once." This study is to be carried on in connection with the study of history or of German.

Commendable breadth of view was shown in the following expression of the Prussian Ministry of Education early in 1921: "The new textbooks of history can be composed only after a fair start has been made in remodeling the system of higher education. It is impossible to regulate their composition by decrees, but it should be left to free scholarly competition. It is to be hoped that the instruction in the new constitution of the Empire will lead to a comprehension of the present form of government among the pupils. A member of the Ministerium, Herr Rommel, has composed a commentary on the constitution, entitled: 'Die Verfassung des deutschen Reiches, Leitfaden zum Gebrauche in Schule und Haus,' which corresponds to the intentions of the Minister.

"The instruction in history in the universities has not been made the object of any official decree. Here still more than in the schools the principle must remain inviolate that the new political ideas must win recognition through their own strength." (The present writer has trustworthy information that the university professors and students are in most parts of Germany becoming more and more opposed to the present form of government and many, if not most of them, are pro-monarchist.)

#### c. Bavaria

In Bavaria the same problem was faced of adjusting the textbooks of history to the new situation after the revolution (a commentary upon the writing of partisan history!). At first, the teachers were told to use the former textbooks, but "with due discretion." By December, 1920, the recasting of textbooks of history was already under way.

In Bavaria also a copy of the new Constitution of the Empire is handed free of charge to all pupils on leaving school, and by a decision of the Bavarian Landtag they are also to receive a copy of the new Constitution of Bavaria, and an abstract (extract) of the Treaty of Versailles.

### II. GREATER INTEREST IN MODERN HISTORY

Is there a greater interest in modern history or in all history since the war?

On this question, replies were received from eight university professors and three teachers in the higher schools. Nearly all of them answered in the affirmative, some very decisively.

The following extracts from the replies of two university professors are of especial interest:

a. "Yes, not because of a scientific interest in the past, but a political interest in the present. I am treating modern history exclusively both in my lectures and in my seminary work. I am lecturing, e. g.,

on History since 1871; Modern Democracy (U. S. A., Switzerland, England, France); the Peace of Versailles; the Constitution of the German Empire; the British World Empire."

b. (The following is from Professor Jacob, of Tübingen University, who specified that his name might be used.) "This question is to be answered with a decided 'Yes.' A very large majority of our students have a strong national sentiment, which has kept increasing since the revolution and the national humiliation which it has brought upon us. This is especially true of the younger students who have just graduated from the schools. Hence it is a matter of course that they should evince a far more vivid interest in modern and recent history than they did before the war, especially in German history, in the great questions of politics, in the great men of history. This applies in particular to all kinds of 'Korporationsstudenten' [i. e., students united in societies or fraternities, most of them wearing distinctive ribbons and colored caps], who are decidedly opposed to pacificism and internationalism, and to democracy of the kind we have at present in Germany. Thus, also, the professors of history in our university are laying more and more stress upon the treatment of modern and recent history and endeavor to promote political education. Very useful in this respect are the debating evenings (Diskussionsabende) which are maintained especially by the 'Korporationsstudenten' or 'Verbindungen' [the latter is the more common term].

"On these occasions, students under the guidance of professors make reports on historical and political questions and then enter into a general discussion of them."

### III. UNIVERSITY COURSES IN MODERN HISTORY

It may be of interest to American teachers and professors of history to know the kinds of courses in modern history now being given in some of the great German universities.

#### *a. University of Berlin*

Russia since 1914, with special reference to the border countries.

Peter the Great and Modern Russia to the present.  
History of Southeastern Europe.

Problems of political economy in Eastern Europe in their relation to Germany.

Austrian history, 1790-1914.

German history in the 19th century.

The war of 1870-1871.

German history, 1815-1914.

Alsace and the eastern provinces of Germany.

Germany and the Treaty of Versailles.

World history, 1815-1871.

Geographical conditions of the development of states.

Constitutions and administrations of European states, from the close of the Middle Age to the present.

History of East India to the present.

History of the German labor movement, 1814-1918.  
Karl Marx, his life and his teachings.  
State and society in Germany in the 19th century.  
International economics.

#### *b. University of Breslau*

History of the 19th century.

Bismarck.

History of political parties in Germany.

Constitutional history of Germany in the 19th century.

The colonies of the great powers, with special reference to the former German colonies.

Economic questions of the day.

Economic and social history of Western Europe.

Sources for the history of the revolution of 1848-1849.

#### *c. University of Göttingen*

German history in the age of Bismarck to the formation of the empire.

World history, 1871-1914.

Conference on the Peace of Versailles.

German constitutional history.

Historical foundations of the British national character.

#### *d. University of Königsberg*

Foreign politics at the present time.

World history since 1890 [dismissal of Bismarck].

Geographical foundations of the Polish state.

History of the United States of America.

The British colonies.

#### *e. University of Leipzig*

The world powers of the present time.

History of the United States of America.

Modern France since 1789.

Modern German economic history.

History of Socialism and Communism.

The dismissal of Bismarck.

Economic questions of the day.

Modern European commercial history.

#### *f. University of Marburg*

Problems of the present in the light of history.

General history in the age of Bismarck, 1851-1871.

The French revolutions of the 18th and 19th centuries.

History of the theories of socialism.

The labor question.

#### *g. University of Munich*

England and the British world power from the close of the Middle Ages to the present.

Bavaria and Germany from the wars of liberation to the world war and the German revolution.

### IV. BETTER INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

How can professors of history, by their teaching, lead to a better understanding among nations?

a. "By a real knowledge of German history on the part of professors of history in other countries. Wilson did not know anything about it. Otherwise ~~the~~ work at Versailles was a conscious crime."

b. "By spreading a better knowledge of foreign countries and a comprehension of the difference in the vital conditions of various states."

c. "By teaching objective truth, as far as this is possible for mortals; the right of each nation should be emphasized. By genuine service in the cause of progress (Kulturarbeit), new relations among states should be established. I am an adherent of a *just* League of Nations."

d. "By seeking supreme humanity (höchstes allgemeines Menschentum) and cultivating simultaneously the sacred foundations of one's own nationality: cosmopolitanism on a national basis."

e. "By an impartial representation of the institutions and conditions of foreign nations."

f. "By educating man to love truth."

g. "By representing things frankly and honestly as they are."

h. "In the future, when passion has subsided, by carefully studying the history of foreign nations and representing it impartially."

i. (The following is by Professor Jacob, of the University of Tübingen, whose name is used by special permission.) "We professors of history may contribute to a better mutual understanding among nations if we see to it that a correct comprehension of history gets into wider circles; i. e., that a general fraternity of the nations and pacifism are a humbug; that every nation may make claims in the world in proportion to the force it possesses to make its assets in morals, civilization, economic development and political energy prevail; that weak and indolent nations, incapable of political existence, ought to disappear and submit to higher civilizations and stronger political energies. The best example of this theory is the United States of America." [I take it that Professor Jacob means that we Americans have proved our right to existence and dominance because we have developed the force to make our ideals prevail. It is not the purpose of the present writer to comment upon the sentiments of those who were so courteous as to reply to his questions.]

#### V. FINANCIAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Teachers of history in America will find a real point of contact with their professional colleagues in Germany in the matter of the personal economic problem. To my question about the effect of the war on the economic status of teachers the following replies were received:

a. "Salaries a little more than doubled. Expenses tenfold. In general, professors are threatened with a desolate descent to the state of proletarians (Proletarisierung)."

b. "The rise of salaries is not proportionate to the rise of prices and it varies greatly. The professors who formerly received fair salaries now receive three to four times as much. The lecture fees paid by students have been raised 60 per cent. Prices are eight to tenfold."

(The two replies above are from universities of central Germany. The following three are from higher schools of Prussia.)

c. "The purchasing value of our present salaries is one-quarter that of pre-war salaries, though we receive nominally three times as much salary now. During the war we were close to starvation, of which we are proud. We suffered for our country."

d. "Increase of salary threefold. Increase of prices tenfold."

e. "Increase of salary about three times. Increase of prices ten to twenty times. Meats, suits, overcoats and shoes cost twenty times as much."

#### VI. ANTI-DEMOCRATIC VIEWS

While the question of German democracy was not raised in the questionnaire, it is interesting and important to notice some of the views voluntarily expressed. While no opposition is expressed to the principle of democracy in general, there seems to be an increasing aversion on the part of many intellectuals from the variety of democracy now being exemplified in the German government. Whether any other government dealing with the same critical problems, in a time of widespread distress, would be any more popular is a question that cannot be answered.

In the reply of Professor Jacob, of the University of Tübingen, noted in section II above, it was pointed out that many university students "are decidedly opposed to pacifism and internationalism and democracy of the kind we have at present in Germany."

Another professor remarks that one of the first duties of the Germans is "to create a national government, which *our* democracy has shown itself unable to form."

The Prussian Minister of Education, in a recent article in the *Berliner Tageblatt*, admits that the parties of the Left have not succeeded in keeping intellectual Germany enthused for the republic (Volksstaat) during the past two years. According to him, by far the greater part of university teachers, a very great portion of the teachers in the higher schools, also many higher officials, physicians, lawyers, writers, artists and others are attached to the parties of the Right and long at the bottom of their hearts for a return of the monarchy; likewise the elections to student committees (Studentenausschüsse) at the various universities show strong majorities of the parties of the Right—in Berlin 2 to 1, in one case 7 to 1. [It might be added that the recent elections to the Prussian Landtag showed the same tendency among the voters in general. While the various socialist groups did not lose many seats (although among themselves the swing was toward the radical element), the Democrats went down from 65 to 26, and the extreme Right went up from 27 to 75.] The Prussian Minister of Education feels that the principal reason for this revulsion of feeling is the fact that the parties of the Left accepted the Treaty of Versailles.

A German professor, commenting on the above views of the Minister of Education, recognizes "the failure of the *German variety* of democracy to satisfy the national sentiment of the educated classes." He

goes on, however, to make the following comment: "The Minister should go back beyond the Treaty of Versailles to the Revolution of November 9, 1918, which gave the Allies the power of imposing such a humiliation upon Germany. It may be said that the Allies, by availing themselves of their chance to impose such a treaty, nipped *true* democracy in the bud in Germany and prepared the way for a future return of some freer form of monarchy, which they professed to abhor. If England cannot subjugate Ireland, how are England and France to subjugate permanently a Germany which they are welding together by extortionate demands?"

#### CONCLUSION

The facts given above as to the effects of the war on teachers and the teaching of history will be welcomed by all American teachers. The writer wishes to express his thanks to the German teachers and professors who were willing to supply these data to their late "enemies." Some of the *opinions* expressed appear no doubt erroneous to the readers as to the writer of this article. But the purpose of this paper is merely to place before American readers the results of the questionnaire. It is for Americans, who have not felt the bitterness of defeat, and especially for historians trained to dispassionate judgment, to read the opinions of their German colleagues carefully and evaluate them justly.

#### COMMUNICATION

##### THE EDITOR OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

Never was the difficulty of making statements about the present grievous conditions in Russia more clearly illustrated than in the article about the situation in that country prepared by Professor C. C. Eckhardt, and carried in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March. It is unfortunate, but true, that perfectly honest observers differ radically as to the value of the Russian evidence available, and that many of them would state the "disheartening" circumstances under the Soviet system far more emphatically than has seemed possible to Professor Eckhardt.

The real facts about Russia seem still to be hidden under a mist of angry discussion, but in the *firm opinion* of many American observers of Russian conditions the following things appear to be evident:

1. The Soviets have been pitiless and cruel beyond the old French Terrorists in killing their opponents wholesale, and silencing fair criticisms with the prison and the firing squad.

2. The Soviets, by holding the helpless relatives of unwilling "bourgeois" officers (compelled to serve in the Bolshevik armies) as hostages for these officers' fidelity; by putting whole classes of persons opposed to their political program upon starvation rations, while awarding to their own armed myrmidons a liberal dietary, and generally by upsetting very many of those common decencies of society and morals usual in modern countries—they have shown themselves barbarous beyond recent precedent.

3. The Soviets have showed such marked bad faith in dealing with other governments (instigating "proletarian" revolutions at the very time they were pretending to be negotiating for peace) that foreign statesmen later have

reached provisional compacts with them only with the greatest hesitancy, and with extreme precautions to guard against the results of treachery.

4. The Soviets have repudiated all the obligations and debts of former governments (including debts due the United States) and have shown no unequivocal intention of ever paying these debts. They have cast aside the treaties made by Russia in the past as "scraps of paper," without even advancing the plea of "necessity" used by Germany for the violation of Belgium. Now they request the world to trust them as to the future, when they have shown themselves faithless as to the past.

5. The Soviets have repudiated and brought into contempt Christianity, just so far as they have dared to go without enraging the great masses of the peasants. They consider religion in general, and Christianity in particular, as silly "idealism," unworthy of "emancipated" persons like the Bolsheviks.

6. The Soviets' excuse that the "blockade" is the cause of the undeniable wretchedness of Russia today is rejected by very many observers. Russia is a great food-producing country. There are locomotives and cars enough for distributing this food if the Bolsheviks had the skill to repair them and the humanity to induce their present bondsmen (the industrial classes) to perform efficient, cheerful work. Today Russia is utterly miserable because of the sheer inefficiency and floundering of the Bolshevik leaders. They try to hoodwink their western sympathisers into charging off this failure to the blockade when the actual reason is evident.

Since Professor Eckhardt has published his article, Secretary of Commerce Hoover has stated officially that practically the only hope for Russia is for her to become again "a productive country," but that *this is impossible* "without a fundamental change in their [the Soviets'] whole economic system," barring which change, he declares, "there will be no consequential trade or production, and no stoppage of continuous degeneration." Whether the Leninists will realize this stern fact until their whole vast land is plunged in ruin is at this writing unanswered.

On March 25, 1921, the United States Government in a formal statement emphatically refused to consider reopening trade relations with Russia until there had been these "fundamental changes" in the Soviet régime, and, treating certain optimistic statements as worthless, Secretary of State Hughes intimated that until these alterations had been made and genuine evidence thereof supplied, "this [American] government is unable to perceive that there is any proper basis for considering trade relations [with Soviet Russia]."

Russia is a great nation, with a great future. The curse, nevertheless, of past and present conditions weighs heavily upon her. Probably if she is left pretty strictly alone, the great inherent common sense of her people will presently rid them of the Soviet incubus. In the meantime, however, I think it only fair to tell the readers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* that, concerning the merits of the existing Bolshevik régime, there is a sharp difference of opinion among honest students of Russian affairs.

Very sincerely yours,

WILLIAM STEARNS DAVIS

The University of Minnesota,  
Minneapolis, Minn., March 27, 1921.

# The Rise and Fall of the Independent Treasury

BY PROFESSOR REGINALD C. McGRANE, UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

On July 1, 1921, the United States Sub-Treasury system, or the Independent Treasury, as it is more commonly called, ceases to exist by act of Congress. After an experience covering fifty-five years, the Government announces that the theory of the complete separation of State and Bank is impracticable. The Independent Treasury arose, in part, from the need felt by the Government to control its own funds. The power of the second United States Bank as a depository of Government funds was deemed detrimental to the interests of the country, and the state banks had demonstrated their inability to handle the situation. Yet today the law abolishing the Sub-Treasuries authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to "utilize any of the Federal Reserve banks" as depositories or fiscal agents of the United States. Thus a cycle in the banking history of our land has been completed. If we examine carefully the legislative career of the Independent Treasury we will find that it falls naturally into three distinct periods; first, the period of inception brought on by the struggle over the old second United States Bank and the distress following the panic of 1837; second, its final establishment after numerous attempts in 1846 and its functioning from that date to the present; and lastly, the recent attack following the enactment of the Federal Reserve law and the ultimate abolition of the Independent Treasury. In the first period the dominant note of interest is the long struggle between Nicholas Biddle and the Government; in the second, the attempt of the system to maintain its independence and the gradual acknowledgment of the futility of this policy; and in the last, the awakening of a consciousness that the Independent Treasury had outlived its usefulness. Throughout the whole history of this unique attempt in banking, party politics and mundane interests hold our attention. And a recital of the events connected with the story verifies this statement.

When Congress assembled in the fall of 1837 to handle the financial distress then prevalent, President Van Buren outlined his views, setting forth the main features of the Independent Treasury. The scheme had been suggested to him by Dr. Brockenbrough, of Richmond, Virginia. The doctor had proposed a complete divorce of state and bank, and the establishment of a system of Federal depositories, two or more to a state, under the charge and management of Federal commissioners. Brockenbrough prophesied a clamor would be raised by politicians "about the increased patronage for the appointment of these commissioners, and by the merchants about locking up funds that ought to be profitably used"; but, the doctor continued, there would not be as much patronage as with the present deposit banks.<sup>1</sup> The idea impressed the President, especially as he was adverse to returning to the old United States

Bank, at that time the United States Bank of Pennsylvania. Accordingly, against the advice of many of his friends,<sup>2</sup> Van Buren suggested the designation of certain public officers to keep and disburse the public money. The message was received with horror, exultation and doubt by the various sections of the country. The deposit banks of New York considered themselves the most abused people in the land; the intimate friends of Biddle stated that the United States Bank would have to act as mediator between the Government and the deposit banks.

On September 14th, Senator Wright, of New York, as chairman of the Committee on Finance, reported a bill to establish an independent treasury; on the 20th of the month the debate began in the Senate. Immediately Calhoun proposed an amendment to the original proposition to the effect that all officers of the Government should be prohibited from accepting anything in payment of revenue except coin. Senator Rives, of Virginia, in behalf of the Bank Democrats, offered an amendment to continue the deposit system. Presumably, three plans were before Congress: one, advocated by Clay and the bank men for the re-establishment of a national bank; the second, for the continuance of the existing deposit bank system with some modifications; and lastly, the Sub-Treasury sanctioned and fathered by Van Buren and the regular Democratic organization. As the debate progressed both parties began to shift their original positions. Democrats, who under Jackson, had advocated the deposit scheme now opposed it; while the Whigs heretofore violent opponents of the "pet banks," insisted that the withdrawal of the public funds from the banks would destroy the financial interests of the land. Proclaiming the increase of executive patronage, the union of sword and purse, the separation of government from the people, and the injustice to the banks and to the country at large, the Whig cohorts gathered about their leaders. On the opposite side, the Democrats stated the divorce of bank and state would give the Treasury full knowledge of its funds; free Congress from bank influence, and restore public confidence in the banks by forcing them to reorganize on a sound financial basis.

On the Senate floor, Clay and Webster defended the Whig position; while Calhoun, already grown tired of his association with the Whigs, "fearing the renewed danger of legislative encroachment," and no longer the "danger of executive usurpation," pronounced his independent political position by indorsing the Van Buren measure and by speaking of Jackson as "that great, remarkable man."<sup>3</sup> Truly, the Sub-Treasury bill was making a strange alignment of political forces in Congress.

The Whigs in the Senate counted on not only blocking the Sub-Treasury bill, but through the help of the Bank Democrats on recreating the old national

bank. To this end, one month before Congress assembled, a friend of the United States Bank had visited Saratoga Springs for the purpose of conferring with the leader of the Bank Democrats, Senator Tallmadge of New York, in order to line up the members-elect to Congress to sustain him in his course and arrange for meetings in various sections of the state to uphold these liberal movements. Six days after Congress convened another adherent of the bank wrote Tallmadge advising him of the most popular method to adopt in order to defeat the Sub-Treasury bill; while on the same day Biddle was congratulated on the disunion among the Democrats and the belief that the Conservatives (Bank Democrats) would go with the Whigs.<sup>4</sup> But on the crucial vote, the Conservatives failed to answer the purpose of the Whigs and the bill for the Sub-Treasury passed by a vote of 26 to 20.<sup>5</sup> In the House, however, the Virginia Conservatives stood by the Whigs, with the result that the bill was killed by a vote of 120 to 6.<sup>6</sup>

The December message of the President returned to the subject undaunted by the late defeat. But the former contest had taught Van Buren the need of compromise. Thus, the tone of the message was more conciliatory toward state banks, and intimated that if the majority of Congress could not agree with the original proposal a suitable substitute might be found in its stead.<sup>7</sup> This section was referred to Senator Wright, as Chairman of the Finance Committee, and on the 16th of January a bill, including Calhoun's former amendment of the "specie clause," was presented to the Senate. Rives of Virginia proposed a substitute midway between the national bank and the independent treasury by selecting twenty-five banks as public depositories, and around these measures the Senate resumed its struggle.

However, the debate in this session did not present many new attractions over that of the former discussion. Calhoun urged haste; Clay advised delay. Tallmadge of New York once more got in touch with Biddle and sought new arguments against the measure. Clay taunted Calhoun for aiding the enemy, while the latter referred to the historic Adams-Clay coalition as a precedent.

But the fate of the measure was not decided in the Senate; the controlling force came from without; and came from the seat of the opposition—Nicholas Biddle. During the previous debate of 1837, the Bank Democrats had not rendered the desired aid in obstructing the administration as Biddle had hoped they would. Now the careful financier turned to Clay as the leader of the Bank men to command the forces while the master mind at Philadelphia directed the maneuvers. The plan adopted was to get the state legislatures to instruct their Senators to vote against the measure; and four days after the debate began in the Senate Biddle set to work on this scheme. Clay was instructed to delay the vote on the measure, while Biddle, through his cohorts in the legislature at Harrisburg, secured resolutions instructing Buchanan to oppose the measure. After skillful work on Biddle's part, these were obtained on the 16th,<sup>8</sup> but on the final vote Biddle's work was overthrown

by a vote of 27 to 25.<sup>9</sup> As Sergeant stated, the Southerners had supported the Sub-Treasury in order to get their own trade into their own hands. The mass of them had been sincere; Calhoun had used it "only to cloak his own ambition."<sup>10</sup>

The House still had to decide the fate of the Senate bill, and, when the bill was introduced, the administration determined to end the struggle. In alarm at the renewed strength of the Government, Sergeant of Pennsylvania, the leader of the Bank men, went to Philadelphia to consult Biddle, and agents of the Bank were sent to Washington to explain to the representatives from Pennsylvania how to defeat the new project. So imminent seemed the danger that Biddle asked Sergeant for a list of all those who would vote against it and also how many votes were needed in addition.<sup>11</sup> This time success crowned the efforts of the national bank, for on the 25th of June the House negatived the measure 125 to 111.<sup>12</sup> Thus the measure was disposed of for the session of 1838.

Then followed a transaction, the strangest in all this long contest, between Bank and Government. On July 11th, Mr. Kimble, of the House of Representatives, on behalf of the Secretary of War, called upon Biddle to know whether the bonds of the Bank given as security for the debt due to the Government at the expiration of the charter as a national bank could be made available "for the use of the Department." Seizing the chance, Biddle agreed to advance the money needed on the first, second, and, perhaps, third bonds, "if it could be made to the interest of both the Department and the Bank." Therefore, if the Secretary would arrange to have the bonds placed at his disposal to raise the money on them, and let the United States Bank of Pennsylvania know "how," where and when the disbursements were to be made, "the Bank would be glad to lend its aid."<sup>13</sup> Thus, the Bank of the United States, a state institution, was to become once more the depository of the Government funds. As Biddle wrote to one of his friends, "after all the nonsense of the last few years, the Government takes in payment of a bond a credit in a bank which does not pay specie yet, and which had declared that it did not mean to pay specie until that very Government had abandoned its course. . . . We resume on the 18th of this month. We begin without having sacrificed any great interest. We begin with a wide circle of resusers, whom our delay has enabled to prepare, and we begin after having fairly beaten down the Government and secured the ascendancy of reason for the future. We arrive in port without having been under the necessity of throwing over any of our cargo. We arrive for every useful purpose, just as soon as our neighbors, who lost overboard a large part of the passengers; and we only stopped on the way to sink a pirate. So that, on the whole, I have no reason to be dissatisfied with our course."<sup>14</sup>

Confident that the struggle was over, and wearied with his exertions, the brilliant head of the corporation now determined to retire. On March 29, 1839, Biddle resigned the presidency of the bank and the institution was turned over to new hands. Under

the guidance of these men the bank started on the last lap of its career. Plunging into the cotton market, it became involved in dubious cotton transactions; aroused a storm of protest by its actions; finally, on October 9, 1839, closed its doors. The next day the banks of Baltimore suspended specie payments, and within a few days the banks of the north and the west followed. The panic of 1839 was upon the nation, and Nicholas Biddle was no longer present to guide the fortunes of the distressed bank nor to check the Government in its last attempt at an independent treasury.

With unflinching steadfastness, Van Buren again proposed to Congress the passage of his favorite measure. Already the election of 1840 was looming in the distance. Party lines were being drawn with this end in view, and, therefore, both sides prepared for the struggle. Both turned to the House of Representatives to gain control in the opening skirmishes. Much depended upon the organization of the House and the complexion of the Senate. When Congress assembled, December 2, 1839, there were 121 Democrats and 118 Whigs in the House, with a double delegation from New Jersey claiming seats. After a period of great confusion, R. M. T. Hunter, a States Rights Man, but favorable to the independent treasury, was chosen Speaker, and the House decided to seat the five Democratic representatives, thereby giving the Democrats 126 votes and the Whigs 115. With the House in their control, five vacancies in the Senate and the panic of 1839 to arouse the people against the banks, the administration resolved to push rapidly the independent treasury before the Whigs could bring the state legislatures to instruct their men to vote against the bill.

Accordingly, on January 14th, Wright of New York presented the bill to the Senate. The familiar arguments so often explained since 1837 were reiterated by friend and foe. Clay fulminated against the bill to no avail, for on the 28d the measure passed the Senate. In the House the opponents strove to stave its passage by insisting upon the maintenance of the rules which placed private and important measures before the Sub-Treasury on the calendar, by delaying legislation through filibustering and by continually leaving the hall and thereby preventing a quorum.<sup>15</sup> In utter despair, Jackson was appealed to for aid,<sup>16</sup> and in a thunderous attack the sage of Nashville called upon all Democrats as "faithful soldiers to unite and be on their posts and pass the Independent Treasury Bill."<sup>17</sup> Thus, impelled by Jackson and whipped into line by blasts from the *Globe*, the Democrats remained at their station, and at last, on June 30th, by a vote of 128 to 99 passed the bill.<sup>18</sup> July 4, 1840, Van Buren signed the act, and, with his signature, the Democrats rejoiced that the contest of eleven years was over.

But the issue had not been settled, it had only been postponed. On the wild cry of "Tippecanoe and Tyler, Too," and "Down with Van Burenism," the Whigs swept into office in the election of 1840. Harrison's administration was too brief to deal with the currency problem, but when Congress assembled on

the last day of May, 1841, pursuant to a proclamation which had been issued by Harrison, the followers of the national bank determined to repeal the Sub-Treasury bill. Notwithstanding the fact that the plan had worked—whether because of its merits or on account of favorable circumstances—is undetermined. Clay immediately introduced a bill to repeal the law. On August 18, 1841, Van Buren's scheme was abandoned,<sup>19</sup> and then began a long struggle between the Whigs and Tyler over a national bank, which resulted in the reading of Tyler out of the party.

The return of the Democrats to power in 1844 naturally revived the latent interest in the subject. President Polk in his first annual message to Congress suggested the establishment of a "constitutional" treasury, which, he claimed, should be "a secure depository for the public money, without any power to make loans or discounts or to issue any paper whatsoever as a currency or consideration" and "independent of all banking operations."<sup>20</sup> Again the subject was discussed in full. The union of the Government and the banks was declared unconstitutional by the supporters of the proposal. The advocates of the banks replied that the public moneys would be safer in private institutions, would allow for easier and more inexpensive collection of the Government funds, and would permit of greater facility in obtaining loans. But this time public opinion was more favorable to the measure, and on April 2, 1846, the bill passed the House by a vote of 128 to 67; on August 1st, the Senate, by a strict party vote of 28 to 24, passed the bill, and on August 6th it was signed by the President.<sup>21</sup> The final divorce of state and bank was consummated.

The act which established the Sub-Treasury system placed the central office at Washington and provided for offices in Philadelphia, New York, New Orleans, Boston, Charleston and St. Louis. Of these six Sub-Treasuries, five have been retained to the present day. "The one at Charleston has been discontinued, while four others—Baltimore, Chicago, Cincinnati and San Francisco—have been added." The law required the Independent Treasury "to receive all moneys due the United States, to keep them safely, and to pay them out promptly when ordered by the proper department or office of the Government; to perform all duties as fiscal agents of the Government, and to pay pensions." It also contained the famous specie clause, "which required the payment of public dues and disbursements in gold or silver coin or Treasury notes alone."<sup>22</sup>

Since its establishment in 1846, the history of the Sub-Treasury has fallen into three distinct periods. For the first fifteen years of its history, the "divorce of bank and state" was nearly complete. During the Mexican War the Sub-Treasury system worked well and managed government finances far more satisfactorily than finances were managed in the War of 1812. In 1857 came a panic, and, although the banks failed and caused the Government great embarrassment, still the Government had its money in its own hands and was able to pay its debts without



trouble or delay. The success of this achievement caused Congress to amend the law in 1857 so as "to require all disbursing officers to discontinue the use of banks for the deposit of public moneys in their charge and to deposit in some Sub-Treasury."<sup>23</sup>

With the beginning of the Civil War the system entered upon its second period of development. The necessities of the war forced Chase to apply to the banks for a loan of \$50,000,000 in July of 1861. This was the first step leading to the decline of the Sub-Treasury. Between August 19 and November 19, 1861, the Secretary borrowed \$140,000,000 from the banks. During the next two years the Government was frequently forced to call upon the banks for aid, and in 1863 the national banking system was established. This was a serious departure from independence in two substantial ways, for the Government could now employ banks as financial agents, and the notes issued by the banks were to be received at par in all payments "outside of customs and interest on the public debt, to and from the Government."<sup>24</sup>

From the Civil War on the trend has been to a closer and closer coöperation with the banks. It was to the latter that the Government turned in order to resume specie payments in 1879. The New York banks alone held about \$40,000,000 in inconvertible paper. They held this back and did not present it for redemption. Furthermore, the banks cleared their balances with the Sub-Treasury in legal tender notes. The success of resumption demonstrated the efficient aid rendered by the banks. Again in 1885 the Treasury, involved in difficulty through the reduction of its gold reserve, had to rely on the banks to extricate it. In March the New York clearing house agreed to receive silver certificates in part payment of Government balances due it. In July the banks in New York agreed to exchange gold for subsidiary silver to the amount of \$20,000,000. Between 1888 and 1903 the deposits of the Government in the national banks fluctuated between \$20,000,000 and \$110,000,000. In 1907, Congress amended the depository section of the national bank law and permitted the banks to receive custom duties as deposits, thereby practically removing the last provision for the compulsory independence of the Treasury.<sup>25</sup> As it became more and more apparent that the withdrawal of large amounts of money into the coffers of the Treasury and their sudden disbursements disturbed business, Congress determined to reorganize the whole banking system. As a result the Federal Reserve Act was passed. With its enactment, the Sub-Treasury entered upon the last stage of its history.

The Federal Reserve Law was enacted December 23, 1913, and among the provisions was the statement that "the moneys held in the general fund of the Treasury . . . upon the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury be deposited in the Federal Reserve banks, which banks, when required by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall act as fiscal agents of the United States." At the following session of Congress the advisability of discontinuing the Independ-

ent Treasury arose for discussion. Although the framers of the Reserve Act later acknowledged that it contemplated the ultimate abolition of the latter system,<sup>26</sup> both the supporters of the Federal Reserve Banks and the officials of the Treasury Department cautioned against too precipitate action. Therefore, an amendment to the Legislative Executive and Judicial Appropriation Bill to eliminate the Independent Treasury was rejected after a brief debate by a vote of 18 to 82. In 1916, however, the committee in charge of the appropriations incorporated in the legislative bill a section authorizing and directing the Secretary of the Treasury "to report to Congress at the beginning of its next session which of the Sub-Treasuries, if any, should be continued after the end of the fiscal year 1917." In the opinion of certain members of the committee, some of the Sub-Treasuries could be immediately abolished "without doing any harm to the governmental service, particularly that at Baltimore, where the work could be taken over by the Treasury at Washington."<sup>27</sup> The mention of Baltimore naturally rallied the Maryland representatives to the support of the institution, especially as Baltimore was still smarting under the loss of the Federal Reserve Bank which had gone to Richmond. For forty-six years Baltimore had had a Sub-Treasury, and now as she was forging ahead as never before, "when the Bethlehem Steel Company was about to enlarge and increase its plant at an expenditure of fifty millions, and at Curtis Bay new plants were expending twenty-five millions, it was humiliating to deprive her of a Sub-Treasury. The Independent Treasury was necessary for the receipt of the custom duties, and in the period between December 1, 1915, and November 30, 1916, it had done a business of over \$227,000,000." An attack on the Baltimore Sub-Treasury would inevitably be followed by a general assault on the whole system, and, therefore, Moore of Pennsylvania called upon the representatives of the several districts to defend the rights of their constituents.<sup>28</sup> The call was answered by Allen of the Cincinnati district, who on December 15, 1916, in a very able speech, pointed out that the cost of the Sub-Treasury at Cincinnati was only \$25,000, while its discontinuance would be a distinct loss to the entire Ohio valley.<sup>29</sup>

But the real defense of the Sub-Treasury came in the long-expected report of the Secretary of the Treasury. The cost of maintaining the nine Sub-Treasuries was \$535,004.63; their total transactions, \$4,525,063,111.82. Thus, the cost of these institutions, treating the system as a whole, declared the Secretary, was only one-hundredth of 1 per cent. on the total transactions involved, "an insignificant sum compared with the business done, the important service rendered and the conveniences afforded to the public." "It was suggested," continued Mr. McAdoo, "that the Sub-Treasuries are merely conveniences and not necessities, and that their duties might be performed entirely by the Treasury at Washington. This is in a sense true, but the cost of handling all the business from a common center, in a country so extensive as the United States, might be greater than



the expense of the Sub-Treasury system; whereas, the delays and inconveniences which the public would have to suffer might prove a very serious handicap upon business." Moreover, the Federal Reserve Act did not expressly, or by implication, contemplate the substitution of the Federal Reserve Banks for the Sub-Treasury; and, in the opinion of Mr. McAdoo, such a substitution was neither possible nor advisable. While the general or current fund of the Treasury might in the discretion of the Secretary be deposited in the Federal Reserve Banks, the reserve or trust funds of the Government, viz., gold coin and bullion and silver dollars held in trust by the Government against outstanding gold and silver certificates and greenbacks were not included. The gold coin and bullion held against gold certificates now amounted to more than two billion dollars, and a considerable part of this was deposited in the Sub-Treasuries. This, in the opinion of the Secretary, should not be committed to the custody of the Federal Reserve Banks, as they were private corporations, but "should be in the physical control of the Government itself." "These trust funds could not be imposed upon the Federal Reserve Banks without legislation. It could only be accomplished by negotiation and agreement, involving, necessarily, compensation for the service rendered." Moreover, if these funds were transferred to the Federal Reserve Banks or to any other private corporation, it would be necessary to make a special deposit of such funds in vaults especially constructed for the purpose and to maintain a Federal guard or some form of adequate Government control over such vaults.

Aside from the custody of the trust funds of the Government, the Sub-Treasuries performed a highly useful service to the public in "making exchange of money, supplying money and coin where needed, and reducing the cost and expense of shipments of money and coin from a common center. . . . Even if these particular functions could be transferred to the Federal Reserve Banks . . . the services rendered by the substituted agencies would have to be compensated for." In the opinion of McAdoo, it was inadvisable at this time to abolish all or any of the Sub-Treasuries."<sup>30</sup>

The effect of this report was felt in both the House and Senate. In the former, Glass of Virginia reiterated the Secretary's advice,<sup>31</sup> and, in the latter, Hitchcock and Reed joined hands to support the administration.<sup>32</sup> The result was that Congress passed the appropriation in 1917 providing for the maintenance of the Sub-Treasuries.<sup>33</sup>

The reason why the opponents of the Sub-Treasuries had failed to score in the struggle of 1917 was due to the lack of sufficient data to prove their contentions. True, Senator Nelson of Minnesota had demonstrated fairly well the added expense of continuing the Sub-Treasury along with the Federal Reserve Banks, and others had intimated that it was the power of "office holding" which explained the fervor of the advocates of the Sub-Treasury. The latter charge seemed to annoy Senators Lewis and Pomerene, for both answered with rather sharp re-

plies.<sup>34</sup> But beyond this skirmish the debate in both houses was dull and uninteresting.

However, on January 26, 1918, the Bureau of Efficiency submitted a report on the work performed by the Sub-Treasuries, which the Bureau had been required to make by the legislative, executive and judicial appropriation act of 1917, and to the opponents of the system this report furnished the long-desired information. The Bureau recommended that all of the nine Sub-Treasuries be abolished within six months after the end of the war. It estimated that the direct annual saving to the Government would be \$450,000, which it presented as a conservative figure. The report covered in detail every function of the Sub-Treasury, including the custody of the Treasury funds, the maintenance of coin exchanges, fiscal transactions and the redemption of paper currency. As regards the first duty the Bureau advocated the retention of the trust funds by the Treasurer in the mints and assay offices, the coin exchanges by the Federal Reserve Banks, and the redemption of paper currency by the Redemption Department at Washington at a saving of \$125,000 a year to the Government. To the Bureau, each of the duties and functions of the Sub-Treasuries could be handled with the same or greater effectiveness by the Federal Reserve Banks, the Treasury at Washington, the mints or other Government agencies.<sup>35</sup>

This report sounded the ultimate death-knell of the Sub-Treasury system. In the session of 1918 the statement was ridiculed as being the report of the "Hazard-a-Guess" Bureau, rather than an Efficiency Bureau, while the Treasury Department once more came to the aid of the Sub-Treasury. Assistant Secretary R. C. Leffingwill asserted that the Department was not ready to recommend the destruction of the Sub-Treasury, that due to the condition of the world's affairs the Sub-Treasuries were performing more work than in recent years, that no country in the world turned over the functions of the Treasury to semi-private banks as would be the case if the Federal Reserve Banks handled the trust funds of the Government, that these banks would necessarily and rightfully expect to be reimbursed for their additional expense, and that the suggestion of the Bureau now to abolish the Sub-Treasuries six months after the war was one which seemed to be contrary to all conceivable theories of efficiency.<sup>36</sup> But the House refused to take seriously these objections, and on March 8, 1918, voted to abolish the Sub-Treasuries. The Senate, however, restored the Sub-Treasuries to the bill, perhaps, due to the pressure exerted by those interested in the patronage angle of the argument.<sup>37</sup> In 1919, the Bureau again advised their extermination,<sup>38</sup> and now, with the close of the war, the prestige acquired by the Federal Reserve system and the rise of reconstruction problems that overshadowed all others the fight was quickly brought to a close. On February 25, 1920, the Committee on Banking and Currency reported such a bill to the House, and on the 17th of May the bill passed the House and on the 19th the Senate. On the 24th the President signed the measure authorizing the Secre-

tary of the Treasury "to transfer any or all of the functions performed [by the Sub-Treasuries after July 1, 1921] to the Treasurer of the United States or the mints or assay offices of the United States . . . or to utilize any of the Federal Reserve Banks acting as depositories or fiscal agents of the United States."<sup>18</sup>

So closes the long, troublesome career of the Sub-Treasury. Out of the party strife and needs of the nation it arose in the Jacksonian era, for party reasons and a belief that the nation required it; the system was maintained for fifty years, and for economic reasons and a feeling that the Sub-Treasury was no longer necessary it has ceased to exist.

<sup>1</sup> Brockenbrough to Van Buren, May 22, 1837. Van Buren MSS. in the Library of Congress.

<sup>2</sup> Rives to Van Buren, June 3, 1837; Wright to Van Buren, June 4, 1837. Van Buren MSS.

<sup>3</sup> Blair to Jackson, Oct. 1, 1837, Jackson MSS. in the Library of Congress. For an excellent analysis of Calhoun's motives and actions at this period consult Cole, A. C., *The Whig Party in the South* (Washington, 1913), pp. 46-49.

<sup>4</sup> McGrane, R. C. (editor), *The Correspondence of Nicholas Biddle* (Boston, 1919), p. 290.

<sup>5</sup> The vote in the Senate showed the strength of the administration. The bill passed by a strict administration vote, with but one Whig voting for its passage—Niles of Connecticut.

<sup>6</sup> The vote resulted in 93 Whigs, 21 Van Buren men and 5 with no party designations voting in favor of tabling the bill. Cf. comments on final vote in the *Globe*, Oct. 14, 1837; *Niles Register*, Oct. 21, 1837; *National Intelligencer*, Oct. 21, 1837; *Buchanan to Jackson*, Oct. 26, 1837. Jackson MSS.

<sup>7</sup> Richardson, J. D., *Messages and Papers of the Presidents*, Vol. III, p. 322.

<sup>8</sup> McGrane, op. cit., pp. 299, 300, 302-304. The story is told in full in the Biddle papers deposited in the Library of Congress. The most significant ones are cited in the above-mentioned text.

<sup>9</sup> Cf. Benton, T. H., *Thirty Years' View* (N. Y., 1854), Vol. II, p. 124, on Calhoun's vote. The vote at this session, like the former ballot, was a strict administration vote—only one Whig (Niles of Connecticut) voting in favor of the measure.

<sup>10</sup> McGrane, op. cit., pp. 305-307.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 304. "Perhaps we may prove to some of our Pennsylvania members that their course is injurious to the state and to themselves," wrote Biddle to Sergeant.

<sup>12</sup> Those voting to negative the bill were 100 Whigs, 18 Democrats, and 7 of no political party designations.

<sup>13</sup> McGrane, op. cit., p. 316.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 318-321. Cf. letter published in full, explaining Biddle's actions during these years.

<sup>15</sup> *Globe*, May 18, 21, 1840; *Cong. Globe*, 1 Sess., Vol. VIII, App. p. 752.

<sup>16</sup> Blair to Jackson, June 17-18(?), 1840, Jackson MSS.

<sup>17</sup> Jackson to Blair, June 27, 1840, Jackson MSS.

<sup>18</sup> For the Whig explanations of the result cf. excellent description in McMaster, J. B., *Hist. of the United States*, Vol. VI, p. 548.

<sup>19</sup> Kinley, David, *The Independent Treasury* (Wash., 1910), pp. 41-46.

<sup>20</sup> Richardson, op. cit., Vol. IV, p. 408.

<sup>21</sup> Kinley, op. cit., pp. 46-52. Since Prof. Kinley has related in detail the next section in the history of the Sub-Treasury, the author has minimized this phase of the story.

<sup>22</sup> Report of the United States Bureau of Efficiency covering the work performed by the Sub-Treasuries, submitted Jan. 26, 1918, p. 9.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 11.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 11-13.

<sup>26</sup> *Cong. Record*, Vol. 54, Pt. I, 64th Cong., 2 Sess., p. 401.

<sup>27</sup> *Cong. Record*, Vol. 53, Pt. 4, 64th Cong., 1 Sess., pp. 3450, 3452.

<sup>28</sup> *Cong. Record*, Vol. 54, Pt. I, 64th Cong., 2 Sess., pp. 348-351. When one of the members (Sisson of Mississippi) made a motion to abolish the Sub-Treasuries, Boston accused him of doing this when the members from the Sub-Treasury districts were absent.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 391-393.

<sup>30</sup> The duties of Sub-Treasuries are:

1. Issue of gold order certificates on gold deposits.
2. Acceptance of gold coins for exchange.
3. Acceptance of standard silver dollars for exchange.
4. Acceptance of fractional silver for redemption.
5. Acceptance of minor coins for redemption.
6. Acceptance of United States notes for redemption.
7. Acceptance of Treasury notes for redemption.
8. Acceptance of gold and silver certificates for redemption.
9. Cancellation (before shipment to Washington) of unfit currency.
10. Laundering of unfit currency which permits of this process.
11. Exchange of various kinds of money for other kinds that may be requested.
12. Remittances for U. S. depository banks of their surplus of internal revenue, customs, money-order postal, and similar funds.
13. Deposits of postal-savings funds direct.
14. Deposits of money-order funds direct and indirect.
15. Deposits of postoffice funds direct and indirect.
16. Deposits of account of 5 per cent. redemption fund.
17. Deposits of interest on public deposits.
18. Deposits of funds belonging to disbursing officers.
19. Funds deposited for transfer to some other point through a payment of the U. S. and presented at the Sub-Treasury for payment.
20. Encashment of checks, warrants and drafts drawn against the Treasurer of the U. S. and presented at the Sub-Treasury for payment.
21. The payment of U. S. coupons and interest checks.

In addition to the foregoing the Sub-Treasuries have the custody of a large part of the reserve and trust funds, consisting of the gold and bullion and silver dollars deposited to secure gold and silver certificates and greenbacks. *Cong. Record*, Vol. 54, Pt. 2, 64th Cong., 2 Sess., p. 1471.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 401.

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 1470, 1471, 1961, 1962.

<sup>33</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 2038, 2039. Vote on amendment to bill to abolish was 15 ayes; 45 nays; 36 not voting. It was not a strict party vote.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 2038. Senator Lewis declared: "There are eleven officers in the Sub-Treasuries who have been appointed by the Democratic administration, but there are 153 others connected with the Sub-Treasuries by preceding Republican administrations who will suffer if the mere question of politics is to be considered, being wholly Republican." Senator Pomerene stated that the "office force of the Sub-Treasury in Cincinnati consists of the Assistant Treasurer and 16 subordinates. The Assistant Treasurer is a Democrat; the 16 subordinates are all Republicans; and I dare say that those 16 subordinates (Republicans) are safer under a Democratic chief than 16 Democrats under a Republican chief." Thus was party politics injected into a financial discussion.

<sup>35</sup> Report of the Bureau of Efficiency, passim.

<sup>36</sup> *Cong. Record*, Vol. 56, Pt. 4, 64th Cong., 2 Sess., pp. 3267, 3268.

<sup>37</sup> Report of the Bureau of Efficiency, 1919, p. 10.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>39</sup> "Provided, That if any moneys or bullion, constituting part of the trust funds or other special funds heretofore required by law to be kept in the Treasury offices shall be

deposited with any Federal Reserve Bank, then such moneys or bullion shall by such bank be kept separate or distinct from the assets, funds, and securities of the Federal Reserve Bank and be held in joint custody of the Federal Reserve agent and the Federal Reserve Bank. Provided further, that nothing in this section shall be construed to deny the right of the Secretary of the Treasury to use member banks as depositories as heretofore authorized by law. . . . All employees in the Sub-Treasuries in the classified civil list of the United States, who may desire, shall be eligible for transfer to classified civil service positions under the control of the Treasury Department" [and the same were to be given preference in the selection of candidates for openings]. Statutes of the United States, 66th Congress, 2d Sess., 1919-1920, pp. 654-656.

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Taxation, the Tariff and Foreign Trade Relations are the "Problems of the Incoming Administration" discussed by Thomas W. Lamont in an article under that title in *Harper's* for March. In conclusion he says: "The new Republican Administration comes into office with the most overwhelming vote of confidence that the country has ever bestowed," and he sees in this the necessity of cultivating a spirit "of trust rather than distrust," "of arranging for close association for constant comparison of ideas with our friends across the sea."

In his study of The Monroe Doctrine and Pact of the League of Nations (*Cuba Contempordnea* for January) Emilio Roig de Leuchsenring shows a remarkably unsympathetic attitude towards this Doctrine, and condemns quite unsparingly the inconsistent American policy.

In discussing the "Origins of Anglo-German Discord" Elie Halévy says (*La Revue de Paris*, Feb. 1, 1921) that 1898 was the critical year when the world saw the beginning of the struggle for great power, one manifestation being the Spanish-American War. In his article, M. Halévy also discusses the passing of political isolation and the effect of Queen Victoria's death on Anglo-German affairs. After 1904, he says, there was "no stopping the mad rush toward the turmoil of 1914."

Although the article in the *National Review* for March on "Irish Parliamentary Government, The World's First Sample," by James Edmond, deals with Australian affairs, the author says in conclusion:

"One theory is that these men [the Irish] are engaged in a heroic effort to get square at the first available opportunity and at the expense of the first available people, for seven hundred years of oppression. Another is that the Celtic Irishman wasn't built for Parliamentary institutions . . . that he is by nature rather a predatory tribesman, and can't be other than the good God made him. Either way, Australia . . . grows weary of the Irish connection which seems to have no compensating advantages. The verdict is that the Irishman is splendidly fit to govern himself as well as he deserves, but that he is no more fitted to govern people of English or Scottish descent than they are to govern him. A divorce is called for—not a judicial separation, but a divorce."

Three brief but quite notable biographical sketches are those by Theodore Von Sosnosky, appearing in *The Quarterly Review* for January, 1921, entitled "The Last of the Hapsburgs," in which the author discusses the Emperor

Francis Joseph, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and the Emperor Carl.

"The Indians of British Columbia, and the Six Nations tribes more particularly, have for some time been showing symptoms of unrest. . . . Our Indians are not in the slightest degree in a rebellious mood, and not one of them has a thought of going on the war path. . . . The loyalty of the Indians was best attested by their conduct in the late war, when, exempted as they are from military service, large numbers enlisted and fought nobly at the front," says R. E. Cosnell, in the first of three articles now appearing in *The Canadian Magazine* for March, and entitled "Indians and Indian Affairs in Canada."

A very interesting life of St. Patrick by Seumas MacManus is published in *The Catholic World* for March. In estimating the value of the good saint's achievements for Ireland, the author says that St. Patrick is "One of the greatest, perhaps the greatest that Ireland ever knew or will ever know, still more, one of the dominant personalities of world history. . . . What Confucius was to the Oriental, Moses to the Israelite, Mohammed to the Arab, Patrick was to the Gaelic race. . . . It was only a man of such terrible passion and such ineffable tenderness who could have gained, as quickly as Patrick did, complete moral ascendancy over the Irish nation—so amazingly compelling their allegiance, obedience, faith, belief and trust, as in one generation to work that wondrous change which called forth the testimony by the old poet: 'There was a demon at the butt of every grass-blade in Erin before thy advent, but at the butt of every grass-blade in Erin today, there is an angel.'"

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# Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

## PART IV.

### SYLLABUS FOR MODERN HISTORY IN TENTH GRADE.

PREPARED BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, THE LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

Acknowledgments are hereby made to the following persons who have read the manuscript and have offered many suggestions and criticisms, some of which the author has incorporated in the report: Professor Henry E. Bourne of Western Reserve University, Professor H. D. Foster of Dartmouth College, Professor W. E. Lingelbach of the University of Pennsylvania, and Dr. James Sullivan, State Historian of New York.

#### PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TENTH-YEAR UNIT

##### Three Possible Alternatives

It would seem on first thought that in organizing the work for the tenth year, the committee have the choice of one of three alternatives: either (1) to submit a block of work for that particular year without very much regard for what has been done before or what may follow later; or (2) to plan the year with the four years of the high school curriculum in mind; or (3) finally, to plan a unit which shall form an integral part of a XII-year program constituting still another step in the development of a "course in history." A more careful examination, however, of the principles set forth in their preliminary report will soon convince one of the impossibility of certain of these alternatives; and will also make clear the difficulty of compromising as between them. On the other hand, the committee feels that every facility should be afforded the schools for making the adoption of any program proposed, as easy as possible.

##### Idea of a Course in History

There are certain elements in the tentative program set forth eighteen months ago which have commended it to those who have given the situation any serious thought or study. One of these is the idea of developing a course in history throughout the twelve years of the school life of the child. In many school systems this will for some years represent an ideal to be striven towards, as local conditions will preclude the many radical, thoroughgoing changes involved in the inauguration of such a program. The time, however, seems ripe for taking the initial steps toward this goal and the country is apparently ready for it; but it must be accompanied by as little disorganization and upheaval as possible.

##### The Four-Year High School and Its Relation to the Reorganization Problem

When this committee was organized its principal task appeared to be that of reorganizing the content of the four years of the four-year high school and this, the first objective of the committee, cannot be overlooked in any proposals which it submits. Many of the schools of

the country are ready and anxious to make a change here where changes below must needs wait upon more favoring conditions. The task, therefore, confronting the committee in its plans for these upper grades differs somewhat from that which it faces with reference to Grades I-VIII. Even here, with the strong current which has set in with regard to the junior high school, and the apparent necessity of beginning the secondary stage of instruction earlier, the committee face a peculiar and a difficult situation.

##### Attitude of Committee Toward Citizenship Training

Again, no committee has been more desirous of evolving a course which shall really minister to the needs of boys and girls, being willing if need be to see their own subject sacrificed, if by so doing the demands of citizenship training will be more satisfactorily realized. They feel that whatever history is taught must minister in a very real and effective way to this end, and that the claims of the specialist must give way before it. They are not only thinking in terms of minimum essentials, but are anxious to harmonize their own wishes and desires with those of other specialists in related fields whose claims must be recognized if the goal is to be that of a better citizenship.

##### Relation of These Proposals to Principles Already Enunciated by Committee

It seems necessary to restate these points in order that there may be a better appreciation of the spirit in which these proposals are submitted. They must be and are intended to be in harmony with the principles which the committee set forth early in their work. These principles have seemed to meet everywhere with a most hearty endorsement, and it is now rather late to abandon them for a new *modus operandi*. It is then in the light of these principles that the present proposals must be judged, bearing in mind throughout that they must be given a practical application; that the theory must be worked out in the practice. The committee's work will be very much facilitated if those interested in the proposed changes will point out wherein these principles have apparently been neglected or abandoned in the actual working program submitted to the schools for their adoption.

##### Two Alternatives Proposed for Tenth Year:

###### The First of These

In their proposed scheme then, for the Xth Grade the committee suggests two alternatives, both harmonizing with the general principles set forth that "every new step in history instruction should be a step forward in the subject." The first is designed to fit in with a XII-year scheme, and assumes the incorporation in the curriculum of the survey proposed for Grades VII-VIII, or its equivalent. This has been designated as American history in its world setting, but, as given a more specific interpreta-

tion by Professor Johnson, is a world survey with our own country assigned its place in the general world order. Again this first alternative assumes that the scope of the work in Grades X-XII is narrowed to a consideration of the modern world noting especially its progress toward democracy; the European background being presented in Grade X, and the American aspect of democracy in Grade XI, concentrating, if time permits, in the XIIth grade, upon some of the problems which are the outgrowth of modern development.

#### This Unit as Part of a Course in History

In planning these steps the committee have not only had in mind their special subject, history, but the claims of related fields, as for example, those of economics, political science and sociology. The work of these first two grades X and XI are to constitute a minimum requirement in history for all graduates of the four-year high school. They must be thought of as minimum requirements in history and in history as defined by those who are the best qualified to define it; namely, the historians themselves. History may be made to serve a variety of purposes, but it can only be organized into a "course in history" on the basis of an accepted definition. This should be formulated by its own students. No better working statement of its aims has been placed before the country than that found in the preliminary report of the committee. This we have, not so much on the authority of the specialists themselves, as on the testimony of these interested in the formulation of school curricula. The committee cannot regard the work of these two minimal years as of a compromise character, seeking to harmonize fields as diverse, for example, as those of history and of sociology. One or the other must yield and the test of which it shall be, is the result desired. It is not a question of organizing a so-called course in history so that it may attain a series of objectives, all of them highly desirable, but many of them having little to do with history *per se*. If a course in history is desirable and there are to be two years given to it, or two added steps to be taken in these upper years to attain this goal, they must be taken essentially in the field of history; otherwise they are entirely out of harmony with the general plan of a course in history.

#### Relation to Other Social Studies

The special problem all along confronting this committee of students of history has been, not to plan hybrid courses or units, but to harmonize the conflicting claims of the social studies and to give each the time and place to which it lays claim because of its inherent power to educate for citizenship. There are possibly points in the XII years where a combination of materials may minister to citizenship requirements as in Grades IX and XII, but their possibilities of educating children rest as much upon preparatory work in the separate fields of history and in civics as it does upon the combination itself. Let us not deceive ourselves that it is simply a question in a given year of a little of this and a little of that; the resultant compound may not yield us much of anything.

#### Second Alternative for the Four-Year High School

What has been said thus far may appear to be in the nature of a digression. The digression is more apparent, however, than real, as the statement of this first alternative carries with it naturally these other very vital considerations. The second of these alternatives offered to the

schools is designed to fit the curriculum of the four-year high school. It is also adaptable to curricula where each year is treated more or less as an independent unit. The principal difference between these proposals is that, in the case of the latter, three to four weeks (not more), are set aside for a preliminary survey of world progress to about the 18th century. This is to serve as a background and a basis for the more intensive study of modern times. This, of course, involves a sacrifice of time which might perhaps with greater profit be devoted to the later history. On the other hand, it will serve to place the student in contact with some of these earlier developments without which it may prove a more difficult task to make clear for him the main streams of contemporary progress.

To recapitulate the following alternatives are offered in this report, each involving a year's work:

#### Plan No. 1

Based on the 12-year program proposed by the committee or at least that portion which covers Grades VII-XII:—

No introductory survey. Work to begin with topic, Rise of Autocratic Governments and Their Predominance in the Early 18th Century.

#### Plan No. 2

Based on partial adoption of the 12-year program and designed especially for the four-year high school, or for school systems which find it impossible to provide for more than a year or two of history:—

Introductory world survey as outlined on p. 16ff, to be followed by the topics as organized on pp. 11-13.

#### Growth of Democracy "the Interpretative Idea"

In accordance with the principle accepted by the committee that greater stress must be placed upon significant interpretative ideas in the organization of a history program, the work of this year represents an effort to present the story of how democracy has come to be such a potent factor in the modern world. This is essentially in line with citizenship requirements. Professor Headlam expresses it aptly when he says: "From the point of view of citizenship, history grows in importance as it approaches the confines of the present day." The Great War has helped to clarify the situation as to one of the fundamental needs of our citizenship and one of the most prominent of these is a better concept of the democracy of which so much has been said and written. It was to make the world safe for democracy that we entered the great struggle across the water, and it is to make democracy safe for the world and to preserve that for which we have struggled that we now labor, not alone in this country, but throughout the world. On the other hand, true to the concept of studying history for its own sake—so clearly set forth by Professor Johnson—this interpretative idea has not been selected on the basis of the present interest of mankind in democratic development, but primarily as the result of an examination of modern development to determine what has really mattered to the people of the last century and a half. The Great War served to throw this line of development into bolder relief. Our problem then is to trace the evolution of this new and essentially modern idea of democracy from the point where it begins to be a potent factor in shaping human progress on to our own day. This struggle on the part of the individual to shape the world in his own interests is peculiarly character-

istic of modern times. It is then a rather limited, restricted view of world development that claims our attention in this year, and it is therefore possible to exclude a great many of the details which would ordinarily figure in a course in modern history. Democracy is not conceived in the narrow sense of a political relationship, but includes every effort on the part of the individual to shape his political, social and economic environment in his own interest as contrasted with those of some class or individual. The struggle is not simply for the attainment of political rights, which, important as they are, do not necessarily bring with them that satisfaction and happiness which are the main goal of human existence. Many other things that contribute to the happiness of mankind are involved in the struggle. It is hoped that the relation between this idea and the subject matter involved has been made so clear that no teacher will run through the world from the 17th century down hunting for autocrats to denounce."

#### Relation of the Unit to Universal or General History

The purpose served by such a course should not be confused with the idea behind Mr. Wells' article which appeared a few years ago and bore the rather significant title, "History is One." This he has since amplified in his recent Outline of Universal History. Mr. Wells expresses in the introduction to his Outline, the idea that there can be no common peace and prosperity without common historical ideas and that "the true binding culture of men is inconceivable" without some sort of a common cosmogony and world history as a basis. The committee disclaim any thought in the proposals for this year of trying to inculcate *à la Wells* a notion of the universe and man's relation to it, which as one of his admirers puts it, may serve as a substitute for religion or as a religion itself. This might well be the task of the entire secondary school period. It certainly calls for and may well tax the resources of a host of scholars working in as many fields, as Mr. Wells' two volumes amply testify. To this extent only is the effort made to establish this "common basis for mankind everywhere," that the single idea of democracy or of a democracy of opportunity as it has found expression since the days of the French Revolution becomes the burden of the thinking and the central theme of this, the second year of the four-year high school course, to be followed by its more specific application to conditions in America in the work of the XIth or XIIth years. We venture the prediction that concentration upon this objective is more likely to bring such results as may be in the mind of a Wells with boys and girls of 15-16 than the other more ambitious objective, even though two years, instead of one be devoted to the task.

#### Relation to Sociology

If this Xth-year unit is to be a part of a course in history and an integral portion of such a course it must confine itself rigidly to the task in hand, viz., that of unfolding step by step the progress of man towards this particular 20th century goal. It will fall perhaps to lay those broad foundations in the field of sociology which may be conceived by some as desirable objectives, but these seem to represent a more mature and a more advanced philosophy of life. The course in history planned for the committee for the whole school life of the child will have failed as a course if before the Xth grade is reached there has not already been established a respect

for the past and its inheritance as the result of contacts with the great and dramatic movements which have swept the world from the earliest time. Let it not be forgotten that the committee is limiting itself to a small number of required as against a larger number of desirable history units.

#### INTRODUCTORY WORLD SURVEY

##### The Ancient World as a Series of Pictures

To satisfy the demand for some contact with the remote past where schools are unwilling to adopt the more inclusive program, it is planned to present a series of pictures visualizing as far as possible the chief stages of man's progress. The first of these would be a picture of that cradle of civilization, the Orient, where, confined within the narrow limits of the Nile and the Tigris-Euphrates the foundations were laid upon which later generations were to build. The next picture would be that of the Greek world, as it gradually made the circuit of the Mediterranean with its culture and penetrated even to the borders of India. These glimpses—and they are little more, of the world of the ancients naturally close with imperial Rome in all her majesty welding together for four centuries and more, by her marvelous system, the lands and peoples of the Mediterranean basin until the cultures of the East and West became merged in one.

##### Treatment of Later History

From this point on to the early 18th century it may prove somewhat more difficult to leave with the student such clear-cut pictures of the past as are characteristic of these earlier centuries. Opportunity should be afforded for a brief survey of the medieval world and its two great institutions, the church and feudalism, noting their influence upon the life of the times. Out of this feudal background gradually emerge the two great states, France and England, clear indications of the rising power of nationality. These evidences of a new order are due, in no small measure, to that new world of commerce and industry which begins to shape itself before our eyes in the period following the Crusades. Any view of these epoch-making changes would be incomplete without calling attention to the gradual extension of the field of Western progress as the result of the trading and commercial enterprises which mark the 16th and 17th centuries, but at this point this introductory survey becomes merged with the topics which have been arranged for the unit as it forms a part of the more comprehensive XII-year program. Such a preliminary survey as has been suggested would also be incomplete without sketching a picture of the Protestant and Catholic world in the period between the advent of Luther and the close of that long series of politico-religious struggles which terminated with the Thirty Years' War.

##### Object of Such a Survey

Such an introduction must of necessity be open to the charge of superficiality. Its main purpose at best can only be to orientate the student and make him realize the long span that separates these later centuries from the earlier stages of man's progress. Opportunities will be afforded from time to time of establishing more vital contacts with this past, *e. g.*, in developing a background for the French Revolution or for the Industrial Revolution. Throughout the survey the object of the course should

be constantly kept in mind and the subject matter can best be presented through the constant use of concrete material, such as maps and pictures.

#### TIME LIMITS OF THE UNIT

It has already been noted, perhaps, that the committee are not interested in stressing a definite date to mark the real beginning of these developments. Students of the 16th and 17th centuries are soon made aware of the gradual merging of the old with the new. Something of this feeling must be inculcated at the beginning of this course. Courses in modern history have been introduced in various states in which the opening date ranges all the way from 1492 to 1750. It is hoped that this unit has been planned with sufficient elasticity to assist materially in standardizing these courses. It is felt that the limits of such a one-year course should be fixed rather in terms of ideas or developments than by precise time limits.

#### The Chronological Order of Treatment

It may appear that considerable emphasis has been placed in this particular scheme of organization upon so-called chronological history to which some people seem to take exception. (We should rather prefer the phrase sequential history.) Some people seem to look upon it as a misfortune that the time element has so much to do with the shaping of history. It is always an element to be reckoned with, and it cannot be reckoned with successfully by the hop, skip and jump method. Students must be able to relate events in time as well as in other connections, and if they fail to relate them in time, somehow or other the result loses much of its value; it even ceases, in many cases, to be history at all. The experience of the classroom seems to show that other things being equal, the more closely the time thread is followed the easier it becomes for the student to grasp the significance of what is presented. This does not mean that these topics must be presented in the precise order in which they have been submitted by the committee; it is not even necessary that the teacher adhere to the order within these analyses. On the other hand, the material has been organized with an eye single to the demands of the subject matter as history and the easiest method of handling the material from the teaching standpoint.

#### Attitude Towards Other Nations

It is believed that the organization proposed here will also serve the very desirable purpose of stressing the contributions of particular nations to modern progress, especially as it relates itself to the world struggle towards a common democratic goal. The same sympathetic attitude toward nations and nationalities should result from the teaching of this unit as it is organized, as is sought after where the organization radically differs from that which has been proposed. There is a better prospect of furthering that much-needed tolerant and broad-minded attitude towards nations other than our own, if the attention of these young folk is concentrated upon an aspect of modern development in which we are all keenly interested. If properly handled, such a course will do much to counteract the attitude that every good thing had its origin in these United States; that it has been our destiny from time to time to set the world right, as in the recent war, and that outside of these deviations from our orbit it has been given us to play an independent God-given role among the nations of the earth.

#### Standardizing the Unit

In order that the unit may be more clearly defined or standardized—and we believe the time has come for a persistent effort in this direction (which should be controlled by those who are specialists in the field and not be allowed to pass into the hands of those who may make it serve propaganda purposes)—the committee had planned to submit a minimum library equipment for the teacher and a minimum list of books or reading selections for the use of the pupil, indicating where it seemed desirable, books which were equally useful, but were in a sense duplicate treatments, working out also a classroom equipment of maps, charts, pictures, etc., within the reach of the smaller schools.\* This would mean that the presentation of such a unit in any part of the country would involve the use of at least some apparatus and the adoption of a minimum technique to accompany the presentation of the subject matter in the classroom. Such recommendations must have stood the test of the classroom and represent the best judgment of those actually at work in the field. It is conceivable that additions will be made from time to time to these minimal requirements as contributions are made to equipment, organization of materials, and methodology. If the teaching of the country is to be improved, it will be improved largely as the result of contributions of this character from this Association maintaining a live working committee from year to year with this as one of its principal objectives. If this work is not performed by experts, under expert guidance, it will be performed by others less capable of performing the task. The pressure now upon the curriculum from every angle is such that this is one of the most promising solutions of good teaching in individual subjects and will go far towards saving the curriculum as a whole.

#### Relative Importance of the Two Proposals

The following report for the Xth year then assumes that there will be schools desirous of adopting the course in modern history as a single unit with very little regard to its relation to a comprehensive course in history. Although the committee does not recommend such a breaking up of their proposals into separate courses, they so strongly feel the desirability of every high school student having some knowledge of the modern world that they have attempted to outline a brief introduction to the story of the democratic development of the last two hundred years. This should be presented in such a way as to leave with the student some feeling for the great movements which have changed the face of history and have made present developments possible. A more sympathetic attitude toward the present should result from an appreciation of the long struggle which man has waged to attain to his present state.

#### True Starting Point of Unit

Such a preliminary survey may also be thought desirable in planning a course in history for the four-year high school, especially if the committee's recommendations be followed for Grades IX, XI and XII. The true starting point of the course, however, is to be found in the contrast presented between the political and social systems prevailing on the continent in the early 18th century as

\*This objective has only been partially realized. Teachers all over the country can assist materially in work of this kind.



typified by the France of Louis XIV—one of the more progressive representatives of this order—and the more liberal and democratic arrangements which had come into existence in England. A partial background for this situation is furnished by the story of the leavening influence of trade and its part in the creation of a strong middle class which gradually comes into its own, shattering at one and the same time the fetters imposed by the medieval church and by medieval society.

#### The General Approach to the Field Under the First Alternative

Several ways of approaching this field will probably suggest themselves. One likely to bring results is that of attempting to fix, with the help of the class, the point at which modern development really begins and the criteria by which they have reached their decision. Several modern or contemporary histories might be examined in this connection, or again they might analyze their own world and select what they regarded as the "modern" elements characteristic of it. Such an analysis might be narrowly restricted to their own community, thereby establishing very real points of contact between their own environment and the immediate past which is to be their field of study. If some agreement is reached as to what special fields of man's activity best illustrate the "modern" and the "contemporary," it may be possible to establish at once points of contact with the particular parts of the world where such developments would be looked for first. It is not so much the first appearance of modern ways of doing things or of modern aspects of life with which we are concerned as that of determining when the new or modern idea begins to be significant and potent in shaping the progress of mankind.

#### OUTLINE OR GENERAL PLAN

The unit has been divided into eleven main divisions and these again into twenty-six topics as follows:

##### OUTLINE OR GENERAL PLAN

The unit has been divided into eleven main divisions and these again into twenty-six topics as follows:

#### I. Rise of Autocratic Governments and Their Predominance in the Early Eighteenth Century

1. Louis XIV and the French Monarchy.
2. Peter the Great and the Russian autocratic system.
3. Age of Frederick the Great and of the enlightened despots.

#### II. 4. Growth of Trade and Expansion of Europe (1500-1715)

#### III. The Development of Representative Government in England (1603-1750) and the Founding of the British Empire

5. The development of representative government in England, 1603-1750.
6. The eighteenth century struggle for trade and colonial empire and the founding of the British Empire.

#### IV. The French Revolution and Its Political Consequences to 1815

7. The overthrow of the old order.
8. The revolution and the struggle with Europe.
9. The supremacy of Napoleon and his overthrow.

#### V. 10. The Industrial Revolution in England (End of the first semester, or half year)

#### VI. The Spread of the Economic Revolution to the Con-

#### tinents and the Struggle Against Reaction (1815-1848)

11. The beginnings of the industrial revolution on the continent and the rise of socialism.
12. Metternich and the struggle for constitutional government.

#### VII. The Growth of Nationality and Its Effects Upon Europe (1848-1871)

13. The establishment of the Second Empire and the beginnings of its influence upon Europe, 1848-1856.
14. The struggle for Italian unity.
15. The struggle for German unity and the creation of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy.

#### VIII. The Penetration of Asia and Africa and Its Resultant Changes (1870-1914)

16. The Near Eastern question and the rise of the Balkan States.
17. The opening up of Africa.

18. Russia and the awakening of the Far East.

#### IX. The Internal Struggle Between Advancing Democracy and Autocracy (1870-1914)

19. The maintenance of autocratic governments in Germany and Russia, 1870-1914.
20. The advance of democracy, 1870-1914.

#### X. Imperialism and the World War

21. The great colonial powers and their world interests.
22. German imperialism and the World War, 1914-1918.

#### XI. Democracy Since the War and Its Problems (1914-)

23. The Russian revolution and the disintegration of the Russian Empire.
24. The Allies and the war.
25. Reorganization of the Central Powers.
26. Other influences of the war, 1914.

#### Time Allotment

The emphasis to be placed upon these main divisions is indicated by insisting that the work of the first half year shall end with the Congress of Vienna, and that at least the last quarter of the second half year shall be given over to the Great War and the half century immediately preceding it. On the basis of 40 weeks to the school year this would mean 20 weeks for the period to 1815, 10 weeks for the period from 1815 to 1870 and the remaining time to the period since 1870. Five periods a week is assumed throughout.

The amount of time to be given to each topic within these main divisions is not to be determined necessarily by the minuteness of the analysis, but rather on the basis of the general scheme outlined above. The problems of emphasis and of time allotment are closely related, and the teacher and student are to be governed more by the paragraphs of suggestions than by the syllabus proper in determining the amount of time which should be given to the various points in the outline. These suggestions represent an attempt to point the way as to the selection of material and emphasis. They constitute the more important part of the "definition" of the unit. In some cases a more detailed analysis has been prepared with the idea of differentiating more clearly between material that is really pertinent and that which may well be ignored altogether. This unit of work for the Xth grade is conceived as decidedly elementary in character and anything like a comprehensive treatment is precluded by the very wealth of materials at the command of the teacher. The

analyses often contain points that will appear in the classroom merely as illustrations of the larger aspects of the subject treated.

#### Order of Topics

It is recommended that the teacher try to follow the order suggested. It may often be found advisable to change not only the order of topics, but the order in which the material has been arranged within the topics. The successful presentation of this unit does not hinge upon the observance of a specific order in the treatment of events, but rather upon the use made of this material and the ideas of modern development to which it gives birth. A training in the handling of historical materials is one of the principal objectives to be kept in mind by the teacher.

#### RELATION OF THIS UNIT TO THE STUDY OF CURRENT EVENTS

##### Organization of Newspaper and Periodical Material

The importance of tying up this contemporary history with current progress needs no elaborated argument. It is important that the teacher be clear as to just what purpose this current data is to serve and just how it is to be related to the materials covered by the various topics. This study should not be incidental at this stage, but should be so closely interwoven with the other materials that it is regarded from the outset as an integral part of the work to be covered. The effectiveness of work with newspapers and magazines will be increased if such material is organized from week to week and integrated with what the class are taking up in the textbook. This is a difficult problem. It can be solved in part by setting aside the equivalent of one day a week out of the five recitations for organizing this material, and for introducing the class to the problems which it presents. Later on this separate treatment may be dispensed with, perhaps, as the class acquire familiarity with the use and pertinency of this data.

##### Appraisal of Newspaper and Periodical Material

It is recommended that this year be given over to training in the appraisal of newspaper and magazine material with problems that call for differentiation between news items and editorials and the checking of the daily or semi-weekly newsheet against the weekly or monthly magazine with its attempts to refine and sift the materials which have been gathered day by day. The importance and the necessity of a background for a proper understanding of what is taking place can be brought out by analyzing the various allusions to the past to be found in this newspaper material and by establishing at every point contacts between this material and the past. As the work of the year deals more and more with events related closely to what is happening around us, conscious efforts should be put forth to trace what might be looked upon as "the family trees" of many of our present-day problems. If the class has already acquired the practice of settling down questions suggested by the developments of their own day which demand a knowledge of the past for a satisfactory answer, it will prove a much easier task for the teacher, as the work progresses, to point out the historical origins of many of our most vexatious problems.

#### THE PROBLEM OF TECHNIQUE

As that part of the technique which seems to call for special emphasis at this point the committee would recommend considerable attention to the analytical and syntheti-

cal processes. Attention should be drawn to relationships and the possibility of drawing inferences from these relationships. The student must be impressed with the importance of the organization of material. The selection of a rather restricted interpretative idea ought to assist materially in attaining this result. Some opportunities should be given from time to time for a comparison of some of the more important and available sources with the sources for our information of what is taking place around us, in order that the student may begin to appreciate how history is written and the relation which his textbook bears to the general field which he is covering. The Xth year would seem to be the place for stressing particularly the place and use of the textbook and training the student to utilize its contents, maps, pictures and pedagogical apparatus to the best possible advantage. It is only now and then that time and opportunity will permit of any wide range of reading or more than a passing acquaintance with a few of the standard treatises in the field. The utilization of such concrete means, as those supplied by pictures, maps, diagrams, source extracts, and the like, should be the constant aim of the teacher. An appreciation of their value in the study of history will aid mightily in later work in Grades XI-XII and in college courses.

#### INTRODUCTORY SURVEY OF WORLD PROGRESS

(In Accordance with Plan 2.)

The following topics should form the basis of the classroom discussion:<sup>1</sup>

1. The Oriental World.
2. The Greek World.
3. The Roman World.
4. The Medieval World and Its Institutions.
5. The Protestant and Catholic World (1590-1648).
6. The Rise of National States.

#### SUGGESTIONS

Trace by means of a series of wall maps the gradual spread of civilization from its earliest centers in the valleys of the Tigris-Euphrates and the Nile around the Mediterranean, in an ever-widening radius. The geographical and cultural background of the long period preceding the French Revolution should be presented in such a way as to make clear to the class the fact that the early 18th century simply marked another upward swing or upward impulse toward the predominance of certain peoples and certain ideas which have exercised a greater influence upon his own world than did those of earlier centuries. Each of these topics should be handled as a picture of the progress attained in the period represented by the civilization involved. In each case the life and activities of the people should be stressed rather than the political development. If the class have already determined, in a large way, those fields of human endeavor which show most clearly the modernness of a people, attention should be drawn to these in this rather brief résumé of man's beginnings and early progress. The fields which would naturally be selected are those of government, religion, industry, commerce, science, education, and, much later still in its influence, that of international relations. It is important that the relation in time of these

<sup>1</sup>No attempt has been made to analyze these topics. The use of a textbook is suggested for the inexperienced teacher.

civilizations be clearly indicated, perhaps through a time chart; and that the contacts between them be noted. The gradual movement of civilization westward should be brought out as the class follows the fortunes of the early Oriental peoples, the Greeks and the Romans. Attention should be drawn to the links between East and West supplied by the Mycenaean and Aegean cultures, the projection of Greek culture eastwards into India through the conquests of Alexander, and its consequent intermingling with Persian culture, the influence of Rome in bringing some of these older cultures together and in reaching out into parts of western Europe as yet untouched by these cultural streams. The outstanding characteristics of the cultures of each of these "worlds" can be best appreciated by the wise selection of a few of their remains. In the case of the Orient, pictures of tombs, temples, palace bas-reliefs, inscribed clay tablets, and the ruins of cities (to emphasize the density of the population in the great centers where these civilizations flourished), will do much to drive home some of its characteristic features. In the case of Rome, concentration on such pictures as those of the forum, the colosseum, Roman roads, bridges and aqueducts will assist materially in lending reality to the meaning of the Roman Empire, especially if the geographical and cultural elements of which it was composed are kept before the class by the use of maps.

With the break-up of the Roman Empire the task becomes more difficult of leaving with the class an appreciation of the middle ages. Much can be done here with the help of the map. As attention is drawn to the five elements which entered into the culture of the centuries which followed each of these should be associated with its geographical environment. A selection of readings presenting material such as is to be found in Thompson, J. W., *Reference Studies in Medieval History*, pp. 2-5; Thatcher and Schwill, *Europe in the Middle Ages*, pp. 4-5; Marvin, F. S., *Living Past*, pp. 120-123, will enable the class to appreciate the results of this intermingling of Roman, German, Byzantine, Christian, and Saracen elements, and how it laid the foundations for the transition to modern times. The formation of new political units, as the result of the migrations of the Germans, the influence of the Church in the shaping of these units as represented by the Holy Roman Empire, and the gradual fixing of the boundaries of the present states of Europe can be best shown by means of maps. Typical pictures of medieval castles, the monasteries, romanesque and gothic cathedrals, tournaments, beleaguered cities, &c., will all help to leave with the student impressions of the main channels which confined much of the life of the Middle ages.

From this point on he should be impressed more and more with the merging of the life and culture of those days with that of the present. A rather cursory presentation of the division of Europe into two great hostile religious camps can be built upon later in presenting in some detail the reasons for England's leadership in the 17th and 18th centuries, and the part played by religion in the France of Louis XIV and its importance in the *ancien régime*. The widening of man's horizon through the revolutionary changes which affected commerce between 1500-1600 furnish a satisfactory connecting link between these earlier centuries and the new era which forms the subject of this study. The influence of nationality in fixing the

boundaries of France and England can be developed in connection with the gradual shaping of western Europe during the middle ages towards its present boundaries in the rapid map survey already proposed in connection with the presentation of the medieval world. The time limits represented should be noted throughout and emphasized so that the class will carry away the idea of the comparative shortness of the period to be covered in this study of modern history. This can be done by the use of time charts or the preparation of simple time lines. Considerable latitude is left to the teacher in the outline of the work proposed for these three to four weeks (as this should be the outside limit set for this introductory material). If this is all new material for the class the task will prove much more difficult than would otherwise be the case. The teacher must have the courage to steer a straight course through this part of the history with his eye fixed constantly upon the goal to be attained, which is an appreciation of the struggle toward a more democratic order, as it has been fought out in the more progressive countries of the world, and as it has influenced directly or indirectly people everywhere. It is the life and achievements of peoples rather than that of individuals which should engage the attention and this idea should help the teacher in charting his course through a field as rich as that already sketched. The more concrete the work is made the more satisfactory will be the results. Actual material remains will convey a more correct picture of the interests of the masses then than would be true of similar remains today. The potency of ideas is felt as the period of the Renaissance and the French Revolution begin to be reached. The ideas which swayed the masses in these early centuries are more likely to find their embodiment in material remains than is perhaps true of those of the progressive peoples of our own day.

#### BEGINNINGS OF MODERN HISTORY

These first few topics prepare the way for a consideration of the long struggle between the forces of democracy and of autocracy which was brought out into bold relief by the Great European War. Although it is possible to trace some of the influences tending toward democratic methods of government back into the remote past, democracy begins to be a real political force as the result of the emergence of the middle class and their influence upon the English government following the Puritan Revolution and the Glorious Revolution of 1688. The transformation of society which accompanied the commercial revolution and the widening of the horizon of mankind through the expansion movement which accompanied it prepared the way for far-reaching changes in government of which the student should be made cognizant.

The French Revolution should be thought of as marking the true beginning of the course, but from the very outset democracy is not to be conceived in the narrow sense of a political relationship, but rather as the effort to the individual to shape his political, social and economic environment in his own interests as contrasted with those of some class or individual. It is in the light of this principle that the starting point of this unit is fixed where it is. The quest is for outstanding evidences of the possession by the individual of this power or ability and the contrast should be emphasized between the situa-

tion faced by the individual on the continent and that to be found in England. Enough of the history of these other countries should be presented so that the relation to the general progress of democratic ideas and democratic movements will be clear from this time forward. The situation in France must be presented in greater detail in order that the background for the French Revolution may be understood. We should constantly be reminded that the picture painted for France is to be accepted for the whole of Europe, with the possible exception of Russia and her neighbors in the East; and it is a much brighter picture for being painted in France, rather than in one of her continental neighbors. If this "old order" is presented as typical of the whole of Western Europe, rather than as characteristic of France alone, the French Revolution is likely to be more clearly understood and current notions about it, drawn from a Dickens or a Carlyle, will be more readily abandoned.

### I RISE OF AUTOCRATIC GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR PREDOMINANCE IN THE EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

#### 1. LOUIS XIV AND THE FRENCH MONARCHY

1. The Divine Right theory of government as applied in France.
  - a. The position of the King—patronage of art and literature.
  - b. The Army—Louvois; Vauban.
  - c. The Court.
  - d. The Church—The revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685.
  - e. Social classes.
2. The policy of Louis XIV.
  - a. At home—Colbert.
  - b. Abroad—Wars of Louis XIV.
  - c. His successes and failures.
3. The influence of French ideas and French culture.
  - a. On art.
  - b. On literature.
  - c. On the position of France in Europe.

#### Suggestions

As the government of France was typical of those which prevailed on the continent, these elements in the government should be carefully analyzed, emphasis being placed upon its personal character. The king should be regarded as the center about which the whole structure pivoted; the three classes could be represented as three circles, each one a little larger than the other, in that it represented more people. Still another circle could be drawn for the peasants and artisans who were not even classed as belonging to the social order. Those representing the third estate and the masses could be represented as some distance removed from the king. An extract from Saint Simon's *Memoires* and some pictures illustrative of the magnificence of the king's palace and its furnishings will serve to impress the student with its personal character and its "social" as well as its political basis.

Louis XIV's army, his foreign policy, his patronage of art and literature, should all be looked upon as so many ways of enhancing the glory of the monarch and hence that of the state. The more concrete this idea is made through pictures and source material the more readily it will be grasped. The very brilliance of such a king and his court would explain its influence upon other rulers. If all this was possible as the result of personal domination it was naturally not without its imitators, especially in view of the brilliant record made by the French armies and the apparent prosperity and superior intelligence shown by the French people.

#### 2. PETER THE GREAT AND THE RUSSIAN AUTOCRATIC SYSTEM

1. The beginnings of Russia.
  - a. Influence of geography upon Russian development.

- b. The origin of the Russian people.
- c. Byzantine and Tartar influence upon its early history.
2. Attempts of Peter the Great to Modernize Russia.
  - a. Conditions at his accession—Oriental and Slavic influences
  - b. Reforms in the administration—Struggle with the nobles.
  - c. Reforms in the Church.
  - d. Introduction of Western customs.
3. The wars of Peter the Great—Overthrow of Charles XII of Sweden (Poltava, 1709).
4. Russia's position in Europe—Question of Poland.

#### Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note briefly the steps in the rise of Russia before the accession of Peter the Great; the part played by geography in its development, notably the rivers and great plains; the combination of influences at work in making the Russian people what they were: their Slavic origin; their relations with the Byzantine Empire and the Eastern Church; and the Tartar conquest; the problems which confronted Peter the Great and the solutions which he proposed; his relations with his neighbors and their importance; and the effects of his work upon Russia's position among the great states of Western Europe. Note the location and extent of Poland; the characteristics of its people; the reasons for its decline; and its position with reference to its neighbors, especially the rising states of Russia and Prussia.

It will be noted that this topic includes a survey of conditions in Sweden and Poland, but primarily as they have to do with Russia and Russian expansion. By this expansion movement Russia was rapidly extending the sphere of her influence. Russia, like France, was a representative and exponent of absolutism, but an absolutism of a somewhat different type and resting upon a different foundation. Frequent references to the map should accompany this study. A series of maps showing Russian development will make clear the situation in Eastern Europe and the relation of these states to each other.

#### 3. THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT AND OF THE ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS

1. The Rise of Prussia.
  - a. The beginnings of Brandenburg and Prussia.
  - b. The expansion of Prussia to 1740.
    - 1) Union of Brandenburg and Prussia.
    - 2) Territorial gains and reforms of the Great Elector (1640-1688).
    - 3) The Prussian system of government.
2. Frederick the Great and his ambitions.
  - a. His wars and their effects on Prussia.
    - 1) War of the Austrian Succession.
    - 2) The Seven Years' War.
  - b. His internal reforms.
3. The Reform movement of the 18th century—the Enlightened Despotism.
  - a. The new ideas and their influence.
    - 1) Their English origin—John Locke.
    - 2) The French philosophers and publicists: Voltaire; Montesquieu; Diderot; the Encyclopedists.
  - b. The enlightened despots and their reform programs.
    - 1) Their ideas of a ruler's duties.
    - 2) Their problems—social and economic conditions on the continent.
    - 3) Undertakings of the Emperor Joseph II.
    - 4) Accomplishments of Catherine II of Russia.
    - 5) Frederick the Great as an Enlightened Ruler.
    - 6) Reform ministers.
  - c. Illustrations of the changes effected.
    - 1) In the feudal system.
    - 2) Law and administration of justice—Beccaria.
    - 3) Public Works.
    - 4) Education.
    - 5) Freedom of press.

## 4. The End of Poland.

- a. The First Partition (1772).
- b. The National Revival and the Second Partition (1793).
- c. The Revolution of 1794 and the Third Partition (1795).

## Suggestions

In connection with the rise of Prussia the teacher should emphasize the steps by which the House of Hohenzollern gradually brought together the nucleus of a state; the territorial elements of which it was composed; the work of the Great Elector in shaping its organization and character; and his contributions to its development.

It is important to note the extent and power of Prussia at the accession of Frederick the Great; the part he played in European affairs and its influence upon the upbuilding of the Prussian state, fixing its position among the great powers of Europe.

Study his internal reforms as a part of the larger movement represented by the Enlightened Despotism. Trace these ideas back to their origin in England, noting how and by whom they were spread, and the reasons for their adoption by so many of the rulers and statesmen of the time. Analyze a typical reform program, noting carefully the objectives sought; the methods by which these objects were to be realized; and the success attained in each case. Note to what extent this new conception of government made for real progress.

In approaching the topic, the end of Poland, the teacher should note how and why, under the leadership of Frederick the Great and Catherine II of Russia, Poland was dismembered and disappeared as an independent state; and how the territory was divided at each partition.

## II

## 4. THE GROWTH OF TRADE AND THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE 1500-1715

## 1. The Commercial Revolution (1500-1600), and its effects.

- a. Trade in the Middle Ages.
  - 1) The towns as trade centers.
  - 2) The commodities handled.
  - 3) The methods employed.
  - 4) Medieval trade routes.
- b. The great voyages of discovery.
  - 1) Vasco de Gama.
  - 2) Columbus.
  - 3) Magellan.
- c. Effects on trade.
  - 1) The new routes.
  - 2) New commodities.
  - 3) Improved banking and credit facilities.
  - 4) Rise and development of the joint stock and trading companies.
  - 5) The great trading companies and their achievements.

## 2. The founding of colonial empires.

- a. The Portuguese: their aims; field of operations; weaknesses.
- b. The Spanish colonial empire; its extent; policy of Spanish rulers.
- c. The Dutch as traders and colonizers.
- d. English enterprise to 1600.
  - 1) In America.
  - 2) In the Near East.
  - 3) In the Far East.

## 3. The Mercantile System: its strength and weaknesses.

- a. Idea of a balance of trade.
- b. Bounties.
- c. Restrictions on export of raw material.
- d. Encouragement of shipping.
- e. State aid.

## 4. The Growing Importance of the Middle Class (Bourgeoisie).

- a. In England.
- b. On the continent—Italy, France.

## Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note the part played by the epoch-making discoveries in bringing

about changes in commerce and business as carried on in Europe, the revolutionary character of the changes, analyzing the conditions peculiar to trade in the Middle Ages, and contrasting them with the new and more modern conditions, covering in detail, commodities, methods, and routes, and noting especially the tremendous political, social and economic effects upon the people. The class should follow one by one the fortunes of the nations who entered the field, noting the outstanding differences in their objects and methods, the fields in which they labored, and the success or failure which attended their efforts. The mercantile system should be studied as a program to be followed by a competitor for this trade, noting why it commended itself to the nations concerned. Note just how the middle class increased in number and influence as the result of this "revolution" and its significance for the future.

## III

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND (1603-1750) AND THE FOUNDING OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

## 5. THE DEVELOPMENT OF REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND, 1603-1750.

## 1. The Puritan Revolution.

- a. Causes.
  - 1) James I and the Divine Right Theory.
  - 2) Charles I and his attempt to rule without parliament.
  - 3) Religious differences.
- b. The conflict—Oliver Cromwell's victories.
- c. Results.
  - 1) Trial and execution of Charles I.
  - 2) The Commonwealth and Protectorate.

## 2. The Restoration (1660) and the Revolution of 1688.

- a. The religious and political settlements of the Restoration period.
- b. Tyranny of James II.
- c. The Bill of Rights and the Accession of William and Mary.

## 3. The change of dynasty and its effects.

- a. Growth of the Cabinet—Walpole.
- b. Development of party system of government.

## 4. The English system of government.

- a. The King.
- b. The Cabinet.
- c. Parliament: composition and powers.
- d. The Church—the Toleration Act (1689).

## Suggestions

In this survey of English development, the course of events between 1603 and 1750 must be related closely to the political system to which they gave birth. The two revolutions and the change of dynasty are to be studied with this object clearly in mind; they constitute the explanation of the English political system as we find it about 1750. The Divine Right idea should be carefully analyzed and James I's reign studied merely as an illustration of its operation. Charles I's reign should be considered from the standpoint of the relations between king and parliament at the beginning and at the end of his reign, noting the part played by religious differences and the shaping of the English constitutional system through the Petition of Right. Enough of the reigns of Charles II and James II should be presented to make clear the results of the Revolution of 1688, particularly their effects (1) on the relations between King and parliament, (2) on the Church and (3) on the party system. The outstanding clauses of the Bill of Rights might be presented to illustrate what had taken place. A careful analysis should be made of the parts of the English government machinery, noting to what extent it represented the whole population and was really democratic in character.

## 6. THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLE FOR TRADE AND COLONIAL EMPIRE AND THE FOUNDING OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

(Review Topic 4, p. 24.)

## 1. The decay of the older world powers and the ex- of England and France, 1650-1700.

- a. Division of the colonial world between Spain, Portugal and Holland.
- b. Weaknesses of the older colonizing powers.
- c. Expansion of England in America and in India.
  - 1) The Thirteen Colonies.
  - 2) The London East India Company and its work.
- d. Colonial ambitions of France.
  - 1) Occupation of Canada and the Mississippi basin.
  - 2) Designs on India.
- e. Contrasts between English and French colonial enterprises, and methods.
2. Preliminary struggle for world-wide supremacy—Outbreak of the "Second Hundred Years' War" (1689-1815).
  - a. War of the League of Augsburg.
    - 1) Its European aspects.
    - 2) Its colonial aspects—King William's War.
  - b. The War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713.
    - 1) Causes: dynastic interests; balance of power; colonial interests.
    - 2) The participants and their interests.
    - 3) Marlborough's victories.
    - 4) Struggle in America (Queen Anne's War).
    - 5) Effects upon colonial and commercial development.
  - c. The War of the Austrian Succession.
    - 1) European causes.
    - 2) Colonial interests involved—Rivalry of Duplex and Clive in India.
    - 3) Results.
3. The triumph of Great Britain—the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.
  - a. The change in alliances, 1756.
  - b. The connection with the preceding struggles.
    - 1) Enmity between Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great.
    - 2) Clashing interests of France and England in America and Asia.
  - c. The allies and their war aims.
  - d. The struggles on the continent—victories of Frederick the Great.
  - e. The French and Indian War in America, 1754-1763.
    - 1) The period of disaster to 1757.
    - 2) Policy of William Pitt, the Elder, and success of England, 1757-1760.
  - f. The struggle in India.
    - 1) The Black Hole incident.
    - 2) Clive and the subjugation of Bengal—Plassey.
    - 3) Overthrow of the French in Southern India—Wandewash.
  - g. The Treaty of Paris, 1763.
4. The American Revolution.
  - a. Attempts of England to change her colonial policy.
    - 1) Contrasts between colonial theory and colonial practise to 1760—Walpole.
    - 2) Accession of George III and its effects upon England's colonial policy.
    - 3) Grenville's new policy.
    - 4) The Townshend Acts.
  - b. Opposition to George III in England and reasons: Burke, Fox and the Whigs.
  - c. The opposition in America.
    - 1) The Stamp Act Congress.
    - 2) The non-intercourse agreements and Committees of Correspondence.
    - 3) The Continental Congresses.
    - 4) The Declaration of Independence.
  - d. The War.
    - 1) Isolation of England in Europe and reasons.
    - 2) The French Alliance (1778), and the French Navy.
    - 3) Victories of Saratoga and Yorktown.
  - e. The Treaty of Peace (1783), and its effects.
    - 1) Formation of the United States.
    - 2) Influence upon English colonial policy.

5. Acquisition by England of an empire in the Pacific.
  - a. Captain Cook's voyages.
  - b. Opening of Australia and New Zealand.
6. Decline of mercantilism.

#### Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note the conditions which favored the entrance of England and France into the colonial field between 1680 and 1700; their respective fields of operations and the contrasts they presented as to their policies, with its significance for world development.

Note how the wars of the period from being largely dynastic in character at the outset hinge more and more upon American or Asiatic considerations as time passes; note the nations interested and the war aims or ambitions of each; the merging of one struggle into another and the shifting about of the nations involved; and the factors contributing to English success.

Note how the mercantile theory worked in theory and in practice as illustrated by the events leading to the American Revolution; the relation of the struggle to the progress of democracy and England's position as a world power; the contemporary acquisitions of territory in the Pacific and the extent and character of the British empire at the close of the period.

The central thought here is the building of the English colonial empire and the foundations upon which it rested. Attention should also be drawn to the spread of Anglo-Saxon ideas to America and Asia. The horizon of European culture was tremendously widened as the result of these events and European history takes on a world aspect, being shaped itself as much by what was taking place in Asia and America as it was itself shaping the destinies of these continents.

#### IV.

#### THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND ITS POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES TO 1815

7. THE OVERTHROW OF THE OLD ORDER (ANCIENT REGIME)
1. Conditions in France favorable to revolution—the old order and its defects.
  - a. Social.
    - 1) Class privileges.
    - 2) Feudal survivals.
  - b. Economic.
    - 1) Trade restrictions.
    - 2) Feudal burdens.
    - 3) System of taxation.
    - 4) Waste and extravagance of the rulers.
  - c. Political.
    - 1) Organization of the government.
    - 2) Absolutism of the king.
    - 3) Failures of Louis XV.
  - d. Intellectual—the writings and teachings of the philosophers and economists.
    - 1) Voltaire and Montesquieu.
    - 2) Rousseau and the Encyclopedists.
2. Influence of England and of the American Revolution.
3. The calling of the States General and the end of the old order.
  - a. Louis XVI and his reform ministers.
    - 1) Louis XVI and his problems.
    - 2) Turgot's plans and the opposition of the Court.
    - 3) Necker and his balance sheet.
    - 4) Calonne's financial program.
  - b. Necker and the summoning of the States General.
    - 1) Preliminary steps—The Assembly of the Notables, 1786.
    - 2) Difficulties involved.
      - a) Method of Election.
      - b) Apportionment of representatives.
      - c) The Cahiers.
  - c. Organization of the States General as the National-Constituent Assembly.
    - 1) Question of voting.
    - 2) Opposition of the Court and the Tennis Court Oath.

- 3) The influence of Paris.
  - a) Fall of the Bastille (July 14), and formation of the National Guard.
  - b) Removal of the King and Queen to Paris.
- 4) Influence of Mirabeau.
- d. The accomplishments of the Assembly.
  - a. Social and Economic.
    - 1) Abolition of Privileges and Declaration of the Rights of Man.
    - 2) The Constitution of the Clergy.
    - 3) Financial measures—the assignats.
  - b. Political—The Constitution of 1791.
    - 1) Suffrage.
    - 2) The Legislative Assembly.
    - 3) The King—restrictions on his powers.

#### Suggestions

Analyze carefully the various conditions which entered into and formed a part of the *ancien régime* (the old order); whether the revolution in its origin was primarily inspired by social, economic or political conditions. The conclusion reached will help toward a better understanding of the nature of the movement and the part played by social as contrasted with political and economic factors and so make clear the relative importance to the world at large of the various changes which it effected. Note the efforts of the king and his ministers to meet the situation, analyzing the plans proposed as to their practicability and their adaptation to the situation. Note whether the movement could have been averted and where the responsibility should be placed for its outbreak. Note why the meeting of the States-General marks the beginning of the end of the Old order. Note the part played by the bourgeoisie, or third estate; the events which marked their struggle to secure recognition and the role played by the mob, noting how far it determined the outcome.

Note the tasks assumed by the National Assembly and the success with which they were performed. The importance of the Constitution of 1791, marking as it did the completion of the work begun in 1789, should be clearly appreciated. What was there new and significant about the "New Order" which replaced the old?

#### 8. THE REVOLUTION AND THE STRUGGLE WITH EUROPE

1. The new government of 1791 and its problems.
  - a. Parties.
  - b. The flight of the king and its effects (June, 1791).
  - c. The Declaration of Pillnitz (Aug., 1791).
2. The outbreak of war and the overthrow of the monarchy.
  - a. Causes.
    - 1) The responsibility of the parties.
    - 2) The flight of the émigrés.
    - 3) The attitude of the king.
    - 4) Foreign intervention.
  - b. The declaration of war.
  - c. The first invasion of the Tuilleries (June 20, 1793).
  - d. The Manifesto of Brunswick and the attack on the Tuilleries (Aug. 10).
  - e. Verdun and the September massacres.
  - f. The Convention and the Declaration of the Republic.
3. The Committee of Public Safety and the Terror.
  - a. The situation in 1793.
    - 1) The trial and execution of the king.
    - 2) The hostility of England, Holland and Spain.
    - 3) Treason of Dumouriez.
    - 4) Strife between Girondists and Mountain.
  - b. The organization of the Committee of Public Safety and its methods—the Terror.
  - c. Carnot and the organization of victory.
  - d. The fall of the Girondists.
  - e. Divisions in the Committee and the dictatorship of Robespierre.
4. The overthrow of Robespierre and the restoration of constitutional government.
  - a. Constitution of the Year III.

- b. Treaties of Basle and the Hague, 1795.
5. Effects of the Revolution on France and on Europe.
  - a. The accomplishments of the Convention.
  - b. The revolutionary propaganda and its reception.
  - c. The additions of territory by France.
  - d. The partition of Poland.

#### Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note the disturbing factors in the situation in 1791, how such elements in the situation as the rise and growth of parties, the attitude of the king, as shown in the flight of Varennes, and the possibility of foreign intervention threatened to prolong the revolution and give it a more violent direction; the far-reaching consequences which followed the declaration of war both for France and her relations with Europe; the crisis which the year 1793 brought with it; the heroic measures adopted to meet the situation; the success attained at home and abroad, especially the spread of the revolutionary ideas; the seizure by Robespierre of the opportunity presented to a single individual to dominate the situation; his use of it and his overthrow. Note how order was finally restored and peace with Europe secured. Note the progress attained as the result of these events, not overlooking their relation to the fate of Poland.

The action and interaction of events in France and in Europe should be stressed, noting how the course of the Revolution in France was altered thereby, and how its ideas were spread abroad by this hostile contact of France with other nations of Europe. Events within the country and developments without might be arranged in parallel columns, writing across the dividing line those which seem to be difficult to classify under one heading. The evidences of this influence will appear later and will be stressed in their relation with the particular countries involved.

#### 9. THE SUPREMACY OF NAPOLEON AND HIS OVERTHROW

1. The Directory and the advent of Napoleon.
  - a. The situation in 1795.
    - 1) In France.
    - 2) In Europe—Effects of the Revolution.
  - b. Early career of Napoleon.
    - 1) His training and personality.
    - 2) His connection with the Revolution to 1795.
  - c. Napoleon in Italy and in Egypt.
    - 1) Nature and success of the Italian campaign of 1796.
    - 2) The Egyptian expedition—Battle of the Nile.
    - 3) The reorganization of Italy.
    - 4) Revival of interest in the history and antiquities of Egypt.
2. The establishment of his power in France, 1799-1803.
  - a. Power and influence of the army.
  - b. Inefficiency and unpopularity of the Directory.
  - c. Overthrow of the Directory and formation of the Consulate.
  - d. Transformation of the Consulate into the Empire.
  - e. The work of peace.
    - 1) The Concordat.
    - 2) The Code Napoleon.
    - 3) Education—The University.
    - 4) Public Works.
    - 5) Encouragement of trade and industry.
      - a) Plans for colonial empire—Louisiana and Hayti.
      - b) Bank of France.
3. The extension of his power over Europe.
  - a. Establishment of his power over Italy, 1800-1802.
  - b. Overthrow of Austria and reorganization of Germany—Ulm and Austerlitz (1805).
  - c. The humiliation of Prussia—Jena (1806).
  - d. Eylau and Friedland and the Peace of Tilsit (1807).
  - e. Attempts to crush England.
    - 1) By invasion—Camp at Boulogne.
    - 2) On the sea—Trafalgar, 1805.
    - 3) On the continent—England's part in the coalitions.



- 4) Significance of England's hostility.
4. The struggle against Napoleon and his overthrow.
  - a. The Napoleonic menace—influence of the Napoleonic régime.
    - 1) On France—growth of absolutism.
    - 2) On Europe—territorial rearrangements and administrative reforms.
  - b. The Continental System and the Nationalist reaction against Napoleon.
    - 1) The Berlin and Milan decrees and the Orders in Council.
    - 2) Dynastic ambitions of Napoleon and his idea of universal empire.
    - 3) Resistance of Spain and Portugal.
    - 4) Revolt of Austria—Wagram and its results.
    - 5) The reawakening of Prussia—Stein and Scharnhorst.
  - c. The Moscow campaign and the War of Liberation.
    - 1) Hostility of Northern Europe.
    - 2) Russian campaign of 1812 and its results.
    - 3) Leipzig, 1813.
    - 4) Napoleon's abdication and exile to Elba, 1814.
    - 5) The Hundred Days and Waterloo, 1815.
5. The Congress of Vienna and its settlements.
  - a. The Great Powers and their interests.
  - b. The territorial readjustments.
    - 1) France.
    - 2) Germany.
    - 3) The Netherlands.
    - 4) Switzerland.
    - 5) The Scandinavian peninsula.
    - 6) Colonies and dependencies.
  - c. Effects upon the work of the Revolution.

#### Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note in some detail the situation in 1795 and the characteristics and early career of the man who was to take advantage of these conditions; his opportunity as it presented itself in the campaigns in Italy and Egypt and the use he made of it; the conditions favorable to his rise to power, the overthrow of the existing government and the steps by which he attained, first, the mastery of France, and, this once secured, the control of a large part of Western Europe. Note how much was under his control, the nature of this control and what it meant to Europe, its advantages and its dangers. Note particularly the reasons for England's long drawn-out hostility, the turn of the tide against Napoleon on the continent, the part played especially by the people themselves, who had been aroused by his undemocratic political and economic arrangements, taking advantage of the Russian disaster. The Hundred Days should be studied as an anti-climax. Note the problems involved in the restoration of peace and the readjustments of territory; the countries responsible for their solution and the success attending their efforts. Care should be exercised not to devote too much time and attention to Napoleon's military campaigns. Take one, such as Wagram, or Austerlitz, or any other, and study it as a type.

Napoleon's efforts to modify the existing social, economic and political order in Europe represent his interpretation of the French Revolutionary ideas and his particular use of them to further his own ambitions. His work should be interpreted largely from this standpoint. Claiming to be the child of the Revolution, he was more successful than Robespierre before him in dominating the situation and in bringing things to pass as he saw them. His career raises the question as to the desirability of one far-sighted man being entrusted with the power to shape the destinies of a nation or a people. The rising of the peoples in protest against some of his measures and the persistent hostility of the English nation are significant features of the era.

#### V

#### 10. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> This analysis which follows is more detailed than some of the others, with a view to making clear the kind of material to be used.

1. Conditions responsible—preliminaries of the revolution.
  - a. Demands of trade on industry.
  - b. England's advantages as an industrial center.
    - 1) Her resources and position as a great naval and commercial country.
    - 2) Development of textile industry.
    - 3) Use of iron and coal.
    - 4) Intellectual and scientific progress.
    - 5) Relation of the government to the economic development.
  - c. Breakdown of the guild system and beginnings of the domestic system.
    - 1) The characteristics of the guild system.
    - 2) Nature and importance of the change to the domestic system.
      - a) Division of labor.
      - b) Importance of capital.
      - c) Disappearance of guild restrictions.
2. The revolution in agriculture.
  - a. The old manorial system and its gradual breakdown.
    - 1) The open-field system.
    - 2) The crops.
    - 3) Condition of peasant.
    - 4) Growth of enclosures.
  - b. The awakening of the 18th century in England.
    - 1) Conditions at the opening of the century.
      - a) New crops.
      - b) Persistence of open-field system.
      - c) Beginnings of animal industry.
    - 2) Jethro Tull and Turnip Townshend and improvements in methods of tillage.
      - a) Introduction of artificial grasses for cattle feeding.
      - b) Introduction of new food crops: rye, beans, potatoes, etc.
      - c) Improvements in farm machinery; the plow, horses, hoe, seeder, etc.
      - d) Introduction of artificial fertilizers.
      - e) Introduction of scientific rotation of crops.
    - 3) Robert Bakewell and improvements in cattle and sheep-breeding.
    - 4) Enclosures and the consolidation of small farms.
    - 5) Capitalistic organization of agriculture.
    - 6) Relation of the changes in agriculture to changes in industry.
      - a) The problem of food and raw materials.
      - b) Shifting from agriculture to industry.
3. The new inventions and the revolution in the processes of manufacture.
  - a. In the textile trades.
    - 1) The flying shuttle, 1738.
    - 2) Spinning jenny, 1767.
    - 3) Arkwright's water frame, 1769.
    - 4) Crompton's mule, 1779.
    - 5) Cartwright's power loom, 1787.
    - 6) Improvements in calico printing, 1783-1800.
    - 7) Whitney's cotton gin, 1793.
  - b. In the iron industry.
    - 1) The old process of charcoal smelting.
    - 2) Coal smelting.
    - 3) The blast furnace, 1760.
  - c. In the china and earthenware trades—Josiah Wedgwood.
4. The steam engine and its application to industry.
  - a. Papin's engine.
  - b. Newcomen's pump in the mining industry, 1704.
  - c. Watt's engine applied to the textile and other trades, 1769-1819.
5. The revolution in transportation.
  - a. Road building and canal construction.
    - 1) Macadam and the new turnpikes.
    - 2) The construction of canals.
  - b. Application of steam to transportation.
    - 1) Fulton's steamboat, 1825.
    - 2) Stephenson's locomotive, 1825.

- 3) Building of railroads.
- 4) Development of ocean transportation and inland waterways.
- 6. Introduction of the "factory" system.
  - a. The characteristics of the factory.
    - 1) Power (steam or water).
    - 2) Machinery.
    - 3) Men.
  - b. Effects of the new system.
    - 1) Development of large-scale production.
    - 2) Growth of the capitalist class and separation of interests of capital and labor.
    - 3) Redistribution of population.
    - 4) Employment of women and children.
    - 5) End of old system of trade regulation—disappearance of mercantilism.
    - 6) Growth of trade-unionism.
    - 7) Socialism.
  - c. Effects on England's relations with the rest of the world.
    - 1) In the French Revolution.
    - 2) Under Napoleon—The "continental system."

#### Suggestions

To realize the relation of the industrial revolution to the development of the time it is important that some consideration be given to the conditions responsible for this change and the industrial conditions which preceded it. This change should be related closely to the commercial revolution, noting the increasing dependence of the trading class on the production of commodities as their markets expanded. Note England's advantages as an industrial center, reviewing possibly the development of the wool industry. Note the guild system as it had to do with promoting or retarding an industry, the breakdown of this system, and the movement of industry into the country and the close relations thereby established between agriculture and industry (pictured in literature in Elliot's *Silas Marner*). Note the characteristics of this new system which was replacing the old.

Note the persistence of the manor, the forces which were gradually transforming it, beginning with the 16th century. Note the state of agriculture in the 18th century and how it was revolutionized as the result of men like Tull, Townshend and Bakewell; the effects of this upon production and in the creation of class distinctions. Note the natural dependence of developments in industry upon the increased production of food and raw material.

Note the fourfold nature of the industrial changes which began about 1760: (1) The revolution in inventions and processes; (2) in the means of transportation; (3) the revolution through the new motive power of steam; and (4) in the introduction of the factory system through the combination and 1 and 3. Note the trades particularly affected, tracing in some detail the steps by which first spinning and then weaving were improved, noting the interdependence of these steps. Note in some detail the reasons for, and the far-reaching consequences of, the changes attending the establishment of the "factory" system of industry, with its influence on the working classes, not overlooking its effect in fixing England's position among the other countries of Europe.

#### VI.

#### THE SPREAD OF THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION TO THE CONTINENT AND THE STRUGGLE AGAINST REACTION, 1815-1848

- 11. THE BEGINNINGS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION ON THE CONTINENT AND THE RISE OF SOCIALISM, 1815-1848
  - 1. The revolution in France.
    - a. Favorable conditions.
      - 1) The passing of the guild, 1774-1791.
      - 2) Removal of the prohibition upon the export of machinery from England, 1825.

- 3) Recovery from the shock of the Revolution and Napoleon.
- b. Characteristics.
  - 1) Large-scale manufacture of iron.
  - 2) Scarcity of coal.
  - 3) Production of articles of luxury.
- c. The importance of the capitalist class under Louis Philippe (1830-1848).
- 2. The Revolution in Germany.
  - a. Lateness of the movement and reasons.
    - 1) Conservatism of the people.
    - 2) Attachment to agriculture.
    - 3) Poverty and lack of capital, of an adequate currency, and banking facilities.
    - 4) Lack of markets for German-made goods.
    - 5) Lack of colonies and absence of shipping.
    - 6) Disunion and separateness of states.
  - b. Beginnings, of English origin (1845-50).
    - 1) Importation of English machinery.
    - 2) Introduction of English workmen.
  - c. Progress to 1871.
- 3. Socialism and socialist teachings.
  - a. Louis Blanc and the founding of the Socialist party in France.
  - b. Marx and Engels and the Communist Manifesto (1848).

#### Suggestions

In approaching this topic the teacher should note the conditions which were favorable to, and those which retarded, the introduction of machine production and the factory system, particularly in France and in Germany; the dependence upon England for machinery; the extent to which they made use of their own resources; the rapid growth in France of a factory class and its inferior position under the government of Louis Philippe. Note the slow progress made by Germany down to 1871, with the explanations for this. Note, finally, the gradual shaping of socialist programs and the crystallizing of their ideas, both in France and Germany, under the influence of men like Blanc, Marx and Engels.

#### 12. METTERNICH AND THE STRUGGLE FOR CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT, 1815-1848

- 1. Metternich and the reaction in Europe.
  - a. The reactionary settlements of 1815.
    - 1) Louis XVIII and the charter of 1814.
    - 2) The restoration of the Bourbons in Spain and Naples.
    - 3) The situation in Austria and Germany.
  - b. The Tory Reaction in England.
    - 1) Economic distress and political unrest.
    - 2) The Six Acts.
  - c. Metternich and the "Holy Alliance."
    - 1) Power and influence of Metternich.
    - 2) The "Holy Alliance" and its objects.
- 2. The struggle for constitutional government on the continent.
  - a. The revolutionary movements of 1820-30.
    - 1) Extent and character of the revolution of 1820.
    - 2) The Congresses and the Doctrine of Intervention.
      - a) The Carlsbad Resolutions, 1819.
      - b) Restoration of the exiled Bourbons.
      - c) Interest in Greece.
      - d) Opposition to the "Holy Alliance"—the Monroe Doctrine.
  - 3) The Revolution of 1830 in France and on the continent.
  - b. The Revolution of 1848.
    - 1) Causes.
      - a) The Industrial Revolution.
      - b) Feeling of nationality.
      - c) Dissatisfaction with reactionary governments.
    - 2) Its beginnings in France.
    - 3) The spread of the movement.

struction of the social studies curriculum. That activity is going to move emphatically in the direction of putting into the curriculum a thoroughly new type of material. To accomplish this, this group of workers is convinced that a new method of making the curriculum must be employed. The title of this article and the above introduction points to the first great issue between the two schools of thinking, on which I am commenting.

*Armchair Opinion Versus Scientific Method in the Reconstruction of the Social Studies.* The curriculum has been devised to the present time by what we may term committee procedure. To the present time it has been a method of the most unscientific sort. The method has exhibited an armchair philosophy and in it the opinion and apriori judgment of a small group of specialists in subject-matter have predominated. I shall ask the editor of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to publish a careful study of the personnel, methods and recommendations of each committee of the American Historical Association since the Committee of Ten in 1892, which will completely substantiate these statements. Details cannot be given in this letter, 2 space in which must be devoted to other matters.

*Lack of a program for curriculum-making.* Contrasted with such a method it is feasible at the present time for us to reconstruct the curriculum by more objective and scientific means. First and foremost, we must rest all our work on a definite program for procedure. This seems to me precisely the most serious defect in the procedure of the New Committee of Eight—the complete omission of a program. We felt in hearing your address, and I have been confirmed after a careful reading of your report in the April issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, that although the committee has recommended specific materials for each of the school grades, yet no criteria are given by which we can measure the validity of the materials which they have selected. They do not state specifically why various courses are presented, why particular materials are to be presented in the different grades, or why they are organized as they are within the different grades.

This is precisely the vulnerable point in the entire procedure which historians have employed in making the course of study since the Committee of Ten in 1892. I have recently made an exhaustive study of the procedure of all the national committees in history and in the other social studies beginning with the Committee of Ten. In no one of these reports is there stated definitely a scheme of criteria against which the validity of subject-matter can be checked. They all make recommendations as to the materials to be taught—nation and period to be studied—but no fundamental discussion of the basis of selection and of the placement of materials is given. 3

This, the curriculum maker today regards as an essential first-step, and he feels that "committees" should be estopped from recommending materials without a complete statement of criteria and organizing principles and before the materials have had a controlled and measured trial in a considerable number of public schools. The student of the curriculum takes the stand that committees of educational associations are doing more harm than good when they recommend courses of study before those courses of study have been thoroughly experimented upon. Furthermore, this does not mean mere trial with a few classes by

the authors of this report, so that it is known that given materials can be taught in particular grades and by the recommended methods. Rather, it means controlled and measured experimentation, objective measured results obtained from a considerable number of schools.

#### WHAT IS A SCIENTIFIC PROGRAM FOR CURRICULUM MAKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES?

I am publishing in the next issue of the *Elementary School Journal* a complete statement of what I regard as a sound program. I will abbreviate that program here, enumerating the steps. Lack of space will prevent me from giving important fuller discussion.

*A committee can improve school practice largely by acting in three capacities. First, as a deliberative body of specialists—as specialists in the validity of subject-matter, but also as specialists in the science of curriculum-making.* As such a body it should set up educational aims and definite criteria for the selection and arrangement of subject-matter against which it measures each item proposed for the curriculum. In the second place the committee should set up a complete investigational program. It should substitute objective analyses of human needs and activities for opinion as to what children need to be taught. More specifically I believe it should do the following things: (1) It should determine the exact status of the present teaching of history and related subjects in our public schools—it should set forth the aims and scope of the courses, time allotments, and make detailed analyses of the textbooks and reference books used. (2) It should evaluate critically and constructively the scientific investigations of curriculum-making in social studies which are already available, either published or unpublished. (3) It should make and publish an exhaustive analysis and interpretation of representative examples of "experimental" or innovating courses. (4) It should test by standardized measures of attainment results obtained from the study of history and the related subjects as now taught. (5) Most important of all, it should make scientific investigations of what ought to be taught in our schools. (Examples are given in the article to which I referred.)

Now, as an investigational body it appears that the Committee of Eight has failed completely. So far as reported, no investigations of any kind have been made. Materials have been selected and recommended for teaching in the public schools of America without an objective and basic analysis of economic, industrial and social life.

*Third, the committee should act as a great clearing house and as a forum, stimulating controversial discussion of both its own and other proposed programs.* After some years of debate, clear thinking and experimentation will make possible a wide-spread agreement on fundamental matters. It is safe to conclude that this committee, although it has given much publicity to its report, has not secured a real exchange of views or constructive criticisms.

*Finally, the committee should act as a continuing body.* It should study the application of its recommendations in public schools; collect reactions of school people, and test results obtained. Since the committee has been discharged this, of course, cannot be done. A new standing committee has been appointed by the American Historical Association, of which you are chairman. I would urge upon your committee the fundamental importance of inaugurat-

ing a movement for the scientific study of curriculum-making in history and related subjects.

*The committee's report is a set of hypothetical programs by individuals.* Probably the most significant comment one can make of this report of the Joint Committee on History and Education for Citizenship is that it is a set of hypothetical programs by individuals. Your own scheme has been employed by the committee for the first eight grades, the outlines and materials organized recently by Professor Shafer and Miss Morehouse for the ninth grade, Dr. Knowlton's material for the tenth. Thus, the course recommended for each grade is the program of a single worker, not the carefully matured recommendations of a great body of historians and educators. As hypothetical programs I regard your suggestions for the first eight grades as important. I am convinced that we should give them careful consideration. But, at the same time, we should be clear that they are largely hypotheses concerning what we ought to teach and how we ought to arrange the material. They are not courses experimentally tried, the consideration of evidence concerning which has led to their wide-spread recommendation by historians and students of the school curriculum.

#### ON WHAT BASES SHALL MATERIAL BE INCLUDED IN THE CURRICULUM?

*We have before us, then, the first issue: Shall we use a scientific method in the reconstruction of the curriculum?* Can sound and permanent reconstruction come in any other way? How can we determine soundly what materials to teach our children in this important and intangible field of social activities unless we sweep the board clean and start new, setting up carefully thought-out hypotheses of selection of material, which are based upon the principle of social worth. My own procedure would be to ignore the fact that we have today a curriculum in history, geography and civics; start afresh and define clearly the scope, functions and objectives of the course by this criterion of "social worth." This criterion necessitates that to be included in the course the material must contribute: (1) To a grasp of the great economic, social and political relationships or "laws"; (2) to an understanding of established modes of living; (3) to an interest in and appreciation of the outstanding "problems" and "issues" of contemporary civilization. If this is done, a considerable body of material will be included that now forms part of our social studies curriculum; we will include very much that is not now in the course and we will eliminate fully one-half, probably more than half, of the administrative and political content in current courses.

To illustrate such a procedure I shall publish during the next year some half-dozen studies made during the past year and a half. These studies consist of careful analyses of nationally used histories, geographies and civics books—some 40 altogether. They include also investigations of the units of material which outstanding thinkers in economics, politics, social reform and industry would include in the curriculum which is to be required of all boys and girls through, say, the ninth grade. Elaborate statistical analyses of allusions found in representative newspapers and magazines will also be reported. The study referred to in an earlier paragraph, of the extent to which our curriculum deals with important problems of contemporary life, will be published in full. Finally,

a report will be made of an investigation of what the great frontier thinkers of the day regard as the outstanding economic, industrial, social and political "problems" of contemporary civilization. In its endeavor to construct a sound curriculum, our own research group is turning to the writings of these leading thinkers. From some 70 books on politics, industry, economics, anthropology, sociology and the like—many published since the armistice—statements are being made of these problems and issues.

Such investigations as these after several years of scientific work should enable us to put together a course of study that will stand the most rigorous tests of social value. It is our thesis that the existing curriculum and in a large part the one proposed by the Joint Committee on History and Education for Citizenship will not pass such tests of social validity. Certainly, the committee should set forth its program for curriculum-making—that is, the basic principles of selection and organization of material in order that school people may critically test it.

By this illustration I have tried to show how a scientific program for curriculum-making makes use of the criterion of social worth. The crux of the matter is that we need investigations, not opinion.

#### ON WHAT PRINCIPLES SHALL THE CURRICULUM BE GRADED AND ORGANIZED?

So much for the content of the curriculum. What about the organization, grade placement of materials and arrangement within the grades? The New Committee of Eight has stated no criteria for these important matters. Yet materials are assigned to grades and illustrations are given of methods of presenting material, which appear to me to be at variance with conclusions of psychological validity.

*Two distinct issues face us here.* The first deals with the division of material into school subjects. The second, with important matters of presenting informational subject-matter and of providing adequate practice in analytical thinking.

*One composite social studies course versus three or more separate subjects.* We are dealing, in this matter, with two different problems, one the imperative need of cutting down the number of school subjects, the other an urgent pedagogical and psychological need of insuring that teachers will teach in close relationship all materials which are related in character. As for the former, I am confident that we shall see in the near future the wide-spread demand for fewer school subjects. *More activity on the part of children, but fewer compartments in the curriculum is an impressive need.*

Next let us consider the task of providing that untrained teachers, teaching large classes of children who exhibit very wide individual differences, shall bring into close relationship materials which are related. I am setting up the hypothesis that *it is more in accord with the way in which children learn to teach related materials in one body of subject-matter than in separate compartments on "subjects."* *One subject rather than three is the high point in our theory.* This hypothesis is close to the aim of the old correlation movement. That movement failed, I conclude, for three reasons: (1) For want of systematic supervision of teaching; (2) because our elementary school teachers were, and are, so untrained in both subject-matter and in the psychology of learning that they are unable to do more

than to stick to the thread and detail of the textbooks and organized reference material which their pupils read; (3) because there were no systems of textbooks in which the "correlation" was worked out.

Rather than have teachers attempt the almost impossible task of "correlating" history, geography, civics, economics and sociology (taught as separate subjects), we postulate that more effective outcomes will be secured by weaving together lesson by lesson the facts, movements, conditions, principles and social, economic and political "laws" that depend upon one another *and that can be fully comprehended only when they are woven together*. From one point of view this is "merging history, geography and civics." True enough, in the product of such instruction it is very difficult to distinguish what is history from what is geography, and in turn from other subjects. But if we consider more carefully we will see that this procedure is not *merging* the school subjects at all. It is not "correlated" or "combined" or "fused" social science (to borrow terms from the recent movement in mathematics and science). Rather, it is a whole new and scientific technic of making courses of study by building from the ground up. It ignores the content of current courses in its initial stages at least.

*How shall we present information and provide for practice in generalization?* I proceed next to other important problems in organization; namely, those of assigning subject-matter to grades, of providing adequate practice through repetition of principles and facts, of giving pupils a clear grasp of information, and of stimulating the interests of children through providing human detail. The problem can be made clear by stating definitely two questions which need to be answered. *First*, how shall information be acquired by pupils? *Second*, how can we accomplish our purpose of training pupils in the power of judgment, teaching them to draw generalizations, to form sound conclusions.

It is regrettable that in 1931, after thirty years of development in the science of psychology, we have practically no evidence upon which to make up a detailed "psychology of the school subjects." We must frankly say today that we do not know what historical and social materials should be taught in the different grades of our public schools. Indeed, it seems that the most intelligent conclusion that we can draw at the present time is that no one scheme of organization can be proven to be the best. Certainly no one scheme available today has been proven to be so.

#### CURRENT METHODS OF ORGANIZING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIAL

Investigation will show that there are at least five different methods of organizing social studies material now employed in our public schools. The first, and most typical, is to organize history by periods, by nation and epoch to be studied, and geography by continents, regions and topics. We assign American history to the close of the Revolution to one grade; that from 1783 to date to another grade; medieval history, from 800 to the French Revolution, to another grade; American history from 1609, perhaps, to still another. The significant fact is, however, that no collection of results which is obtained from such an organization has been made to show the relative worth of this method.

*A second method* of organization is to classify subject-matter in accordance with human needs and human activities which satisfy them. With this scheme one would recognize such units as: physical needs and resources, human resources, industrial and governmental organization and the like. This has been done in devising such courses as the Speyer school scheme, the material having been assigned to four subjects, history, geography, economics and industrial arts. The material has been organized around a threefold scheme of food, shelter and clothing. In each grade the material is presented under these three captions, with industrial arts as the correlating subject.

*A third method* of grading and organizing materials, and one which makes use of the needs and activities of people, has been to assign the work of each grade to different kinds of activities. For example, a part of the year is devoted to industrial life, another part to a discussion of the composition of the people, a third deals with crucial physical needs, a fourth with matters of government, etc.

*A fourth method* of organizing the curriculum might be called the family-community-nation-world scheme. It has been suggested (more recently by your Joint Committee of Eight) that material be organized on a basis of the size of the social group of which the child may be regarded as the center. The arrangements of such material in the primary grades of American schools is chiefly on this family-community basis. Apparently, this is in accord with the best psychology that we know today. The basis of the work in these lower grades is made up of excursions, observations and much activity. In the family and in the local community it is physically possible to organize instruction helpfully on this basis. Beyond the local community, since excursions and traveling are prohibited for our public school grades, and since we must resort to pictures, lantern slides, motion pictures and reading, then the notion that we must gradually expand the social group, to include, first, the nation and then the world, probably breaks down. Perhaps, however, some form of the family-community organization of material should be used in which, from the fourth grade up, material is woven together into the course which will help children to understand their present environments, *irrespective of physical location or time location*. That is, by a sufficiently concrete illustration, either the remote or the near in time or place can be made intelligible. The proposed curriculum of the New Committee of Eight is in large part based upon this family-community-nation-world scheme. I think, however, one can discern the use of another principle of organization.

This is a *fifth method*; namely, that of using great principles upon which social life is based as the guiding themes of organization. It has been suggested, for example, that great social principles, like coöperation, ideas of liberty, provision for individual initiative under current methods of social organization should be used to determine the assignment of subject-matter to various grades. After carefully determining concrete situations for our different levels these great notions can be taught. A suggested principle of grade placement is therefore that of preparing a list of these great social principles and of selecting subject-matter which will contribute to understand them, and of assigning to various grades situations which will con-

tribute to this understanding, the level of the discussion being adapted to the learning of the children.

#### ANOTHER BASIS OF ORGANIZING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIAL

I wish to suggest a new basis for organizing social studies material. Aside from the development of important attitudes, probably the most essential outcome to be looked for from the study of history and related subjects is a clear grasp of the great economic, social and political "laws," movements, causal relations. We are primarily interested to train pupils, through years of practice, in meeting thinking situations, to see causal relations, to compare and analyze complex situations; in brief, to understand the great "laws." The crux of human thinking is the ability to see relations clearly. Our training needs center on analysis, on comparison, on selective thinking. If this be true, is it not necessary to set up as the great outcome from teaching the ability to understand and to express the great "laws" in the fields of economics, and industry and in social and political life.

Working on this principle one finds a criterion for the organization of factual material in the social studies. It is to employ in each grade those factual situations which will contribute year by year to a growing appreciation and understanding of the great central generalizations in each of these fields. It is one of the chief defects of our historical, geographical and civic instruction that the course has consisted largely of the encyclopedic presentation of facts, with little or no emphasis upon application of these facts to the understanding of great fundamental relationships. We have preached the latter, but our practice has failed to keep pace with the theory. This other point of view would maintain that the task in no grade is the mere giving of information. The real task is the presentation of concrete situations, with such generalizations, comparisons, emphasis upon interrelations and causal connections, that relationships will begin to stand out even in the lower grades—grosser ones first, their refinement developing only with the higher grades.

But the second problem is as important as the first; namely, *how shall we give sufficient practice in thinking to develop a real power of thought?* One of the chief hypotheses underlying my own curriculum research in the social studies is that *in order for children to be able to generalize in handling social situations, they must have constant practice in generalization.* In order for them to understand great movements, they must be faced constantly with such movements and practice continually in interpreting them.

In order for them to understand causal connections, they must deal with them each day of their school career. In our experimentation, we present big, broad movements, relations, causal connections, in constantly recurring but varied situations in the attempt to develop a rich, interpretative background. We believe that information should be acquired in this way—that is, by gradual accretion, by the accumulative recurrence of primary facts in greatly varied situations. In our work, therefore, we deliberately present great relationships in the class discussion day after day, believing that for them to be permanently mastered, a pupil must see them illustrated in many diversified settings. Thus, *repetition* of causes, big movements, relations, is imperative to bring about real mastery. *Repetition*, to be effective, must involve the making of many inter-

connections—not mere drill upon isolated topics, events, conditions, personages, etc.

To provide adequately for thinking and practice in *thought*, we believe it is necessary to do two things which our present textbooks and recommendations of committees do not do: *First*, definitely organize our courses around problems, relations, causes and effects; in brief, around the great "laws"; *second*, make these relationships recur in many school grades and so frequently within a school grade that mastery steadily grows, both of "laws" and the information contributory to them. How far this principle of organization will carry us only the experimentation of the next few years will show. Whether it will be necessary to repeat these "laws" and causal connections in each grade, *i. e.*, whether we must adopt some form of "layer" organization, remains to be seen.

But the important point is this: repetition of "laws" and facts must be provided for and this is in distinct opposition to the present practice of organizing the history curriculum. Chronological sequence opposes "problem" or unitary organization. Fact-giving predominates over problem-solving as an organizing principle. Arranging history by "periods" and "years" holds forth over scientifically determined repetition of fundamentals. Encyclopedism and paragraphic treatment in text-making render impossible the grasp and retention of vital principles of human relationship, which depend for mastery on wealth of detail and human interest, and upon adequate repetition. *Practice in thought is necessary to develop power of thought.*

#### NEED FOR A NEW TYPE OF NATIONAL COMMITTEE WITH A SCIENTIFIC PROGRAM

*What can a committee confidently recommend, then, with respect to these intricate problems of grade placement and organization of subject-matter?* My answer is: "*Nothing, at the present time.*" The only sound course a committee can take now is to initiate careful experimentation upon several proposed schemes of organizations. The psychological experimentation of the past thirty years has contributed certain fundamental laws of learning which certainly can be recognized, and to which one should conform. The most promising lead, it appears, would be to draw up hypotheses concerning methods of organizing and presenting material which are based upon known laws of learning, and set up detailed and carefully controlled and measured experiments to determine their validity.

In the meantime, let us get underway an important movement for scientifically determining the content and arrangement of the social studies curriculum. Furthermore, let us begin now to look forward to three to five years from now, when we may have the appointment of a different type of committee—a national committee, which will set up a procedure on the order of that discussed at the beginning of this article, which will be adequately financed and permitted to employ two or more high-grade secretaries, who are active professional workers in the field. In the meantime, let us refuse a hearing to any group of workers appointed by a national association which brings forward recommendations concerning what materials should be taught or in what grades and by what methods, unless that group presents a complete, scientifically-founded program and thorough-going evidence to support its recommendation.

# A National Council for the Social Studies

The wider introduction of the social studies—history, government, economics, sociology and related subjects—into the public schools demands the united efforts of all persons interested in training for citizenship. Social studies should be made the core of the curriculum, because an intelligent understanding of society, its modes of living, relationships and problems is the most essential kind of training that elementary and secondary school pupils need.

In the past twenty-five years many national and regional associations and committees have recommended history, civic, economic and sociology courses for the schools. At present there are ten distinct committees representing the above fields, each of which recommends certain social study material to be taught. In most cases, each of these associations and committees has worked independently of the others. The result is a lack of agreement as to what subject matter should be taught, even among those specially qualified to decide. To obtain the cooperation of these groups and all others interested in promoting the social studies in the schools a National Council for Teachers of Social Studies was organized March 3, 1921, at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

The purpose of the Council, as stated in the temporary constitution, adopted for one year, until permanent organization can be perfected, is "to bring about the association and cooperation of teachers of social studies—history, government, economics, sociology, etc.—and of administrators, supervisors, teachers of education and all others interested in obtaining maximum results in education for citizenship through the social studies."

The first object of the Council is to enroll as active members all persons in sympathy with the above purpose, whether they be teachers of the social sciences, administrators, supervisors or college teachers of education. The membership fee is set at one (\$1.00) dollar per year. A temporary Executive Committee of Eight is created by this constitution to determine permanent organization and to carry on the business of the Council during the year. The four officers elected at the preliminary meeting were: President, A. E. McKinley, Managing Editor of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Philadelphia, Pa.; Vice-President, R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Secretary-Treasurer, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; Assistant Secretary, E. U. Rugg, Horace Mann School of Teachers' College, New York City. These officers were empowered to choose four other members to act with them as the Executive Committee for this year. An Advisory Board of fifteen members also will assist in the organization (these names will be published shortly in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*).

In the near future this Executive Committee plans to inaugurate a monthly Department of Social Studies in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. In this section concrete materials of instruction, suggestions for the improvement of the social science curriculum and new methods for presentation of such studies will be published. An annual Yearbook of similar concrete material is also being considered. If a sufficient number support the Council at \$1.00 per

year, this latter publication can be issued this coming year. If it materializes, the program of the annual meeting of the Council might well be devoted to a discussion of the articles appearing in the Yearbook. In that event, such a publication should be placed in the hands of the members several weeks in advance of this meeting. Thus, each member could read in advance the papers to be presented, and would, thereby, be better prepared to take part in the discussion. Therefore, this publication depends upon the number of persons who will support the Council. For example, 1000 members at \$1.00 per year will permit the publication of 100 to 150 pages of material. The National Society for the Study of Education has for twenty years published this type of practical Yearbook for a \$1.00 membership fee. It now embraces about 300 pages annually. The material in it has been of great importance in improving educational practice. Such things as the four reports of the Committee on Economy of Time, as well as important monographs of educational interest, illustrate what their Yearbook does for the advancement of education in this country. One thousand members as a start the first year is not very ambitious for the Social Studies Council. The Mathematics Council, organized February, 1920, has nearly two thousand members now, and the English Council has about five thousand. This latter organization, particularly through its official organ, the *English Journal*, has been tremendously influential in shaping the teaching of English in the schools. Thus, membership in the new Social Studies Council will bring you the up-to-date, concrete, experimental materials of instruction in the field through the Yearbook. Also, through *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* you can further keep in touch with the activities in the social sciences. All the above groups interested in the improvement of history, government, economics and sociology courses are urged to unite in this movement by sending their membership fee to the Secretary.

The idea of such a Council grew out of a Social Science Roundtable, held monthly by teachers of these subjects in the vicinity of Chicago. This winter letters were sent out by the writer to 250 representatives in all the fields mentioned above, including the administrators and teachers of education, asking their opinion as to the desirability of a national council for the social studies, in order to unify the activity of all those interested in these subjects. Practically all the replies were in favor of such an organization.

The Executive Committee particularly wants the cooperation of the associations and committees in the respective fields of history, government, economics and sociology and of the administrators and teachers of education. It asks the secretaries of such associations to assist by getting their members to join the Council. It would also like these organizations to support actively the Council. It should be emphasized that such support is nominal; it is not the desire of the new organization to control or to attempt to dominate in any way the activities and policies of these groups.

Horace Mann School,  
Teachers' College,  
New York City.

EARLE U. RUGG,  
Assistant Secretary.



**STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,**  
of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1921.

County of Philadelphia, } ss.  
State of Pennsylvania, }

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County, aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING Co., Philadelphia, Pa.  
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(This information is required from daily publications only.)

ALFRED C. WILLITS.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 18th day of March, 1921.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

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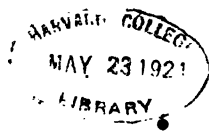
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Volume XII. Number 6.	PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1921.	\$2.00 a year. 25 cents a copy.
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*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

Volume XII.  
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1921

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25 cents a copy.

## Education for Citizenship<sup>1</sup>

BY PROF. J. G. DE R. HAMILTON AND PROF. E. W. KNIGHT, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

### INTRODUCTION

During the war the Army was compelled to give general education and technical training to more than a million and a quarter of the drafted men before a fighting force of four million could be properly organized. Because of the pressure of the emergency, results had to be secured quickly. Therefore, direct, practical and intensive methods of instruction were employed, and a simple and successful technique of teaching was evolved as experience accumulated.

Many thousands of the leading civilian educators contributed to this work, both in the United States and in France. By their coöperation with the military authorities there was built up in the Army a combined military and civilian system of training which proved so effective in developing soldiers that the Army has retained it and is adapting it to peacetime conditions.

There is nothing new in the educational principles on which this training system is based. They are the principles which have been enunciated by all the prophets of education from Socrates to the present time. The technique of teaching is also merely that which has always been used in effective instruction, though it differs in several important ways from the current practices of schools.

Since education is today facing a serious emergency, it is of great importance that civilian educators help in conserving the educational methods which were developed in the military establishment during the war. These methods then proved effective in releasing national strength. They are equally effective now, because they are true to the fundamental instincts of America when liberated from the bonds

of tradition and habit. This monograph suggests a practical program to achieve this end in the field of education for citizenship.

### I. ANALYSIS OF THE GENERAL PROBLEM

For years we have confidently relied upon our traditions, our wealth, our strength, as bulwarks of defense against national perils, and have cherished so healthy an optimism concerning the stability and growth of our civic ideals and practices that we have paid scant attention to specific means of education for effective patriotism of either native Americans or the foreign born. Of late, however, there has been a growing conviction that, however superior we may be, no country is rich enough or strong enough to rely upon untrained citizenship. Patriotism is good citizenship. The fundamental idea upon which it is based is that of service. Service to be effective necessarily requires training; and the child or the man can be trained in sound conceptions of citizenship, in capacities for effective service, as well as in other things. It is equally true, though not so well recognized, that an education which does not also develop a disposition or desire to serve the community is fundamentally defective. Hence, if democracy is to fulfill the destiny that has been claimed for it, it is imperative that every citizen have proper education for citizenship.

Among American citizens there is a too common ignorance of fundamental facts and principles upon which to base wholesome conduct and sound economic, social, political and intellectual attitudes. Nor is ignorance alone found. Indifference, indolence in civic matters and a disposition to evade civic duties are responsible for much of the prevalent ignorance and civic delinquency. Moreover, such weaknesses as these make it difficult for many who are not ignorant to function effectively.

A third obvious defect of American citizenship is lack of critical capacity. The average citizen, lacking information, and too often indifferent, bases his judgments in respect to public problems on the judgments of others who are often no better qualified than himself. There is need to develop the habit of individual analysis and individual judgment based on sound knowledge and correct information.

Finally, a very general American characteristic is the lack of social or civic consciousness. The average American citizen is highly individualistic. Social

War Department,  
WASHINGTON, January 21, 1921.

<sup>1</sup>The following study of Education for Citizenship has been prepared for the War Department by Profs. J. G. de Roulhac Hamilton and E. W. Knight, of the University of North Carolina. Herein are presented their conclusions based on close observation for several months, concerning the principles and practices of Army education, as now conducted under authority of section 27 of the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, as amended June 4, 1920. It is issued to the service for the information of all concerned.

[062.1, A. G. O.]

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consciousness, however, is aroused in time of stress or public danger, when there is a temporary awakening, which usually lasts only so long as the duration of the crisis. In war he is ready without question to die for his country; in peace he is inclined not to recognize the obligation, or even the need, to live for it.

Few will deny the existence of these failures of citizenship. In face of them, training for citizenship must be in part remedial. It should furnish information, awaken interest, develop a critical spirit, create social consciousness and give to every citizen the necessary equipment of qualities, of abilities and of informational knowledge to enable him to function creatively in his economic, social, political and intellectual environment.

But this is not all. It is not enough to cure the existent ills. Training must also be increasingly constructive if, in the future, it is to serve as a preventive of the common evils of American citizenship. It must do this by cultivating:

First. Civic capacities necessary to enable the individual to work creatively in society and to contribute productively to the economic, social, political and intellectual life of his community.

Second. Civic intelligence, which includes the information and knowledge which must be acquired in the process of developing his civic capacities in order to make them effective in conduct.

Third. Civic attitudes and habits of mind and heart, which express themselves in a disposition to serve the community and the nation for the best interests of all.

In short, training for citizenship should aim to make independent, creative, interested, informed and responsible citizens, who have developed the disposition to act justly and the ability to see clearly and think straight. Such citizens, as individuals, will have definite conceptions of themselves as a part of sovereignty, not only as voters and in the formation of effective public opinion, but also as units of that creative power which is the nation's strength. But the appeal of such training must be full of promise to the citizen. It must show vision, aspiration and humanity in its spirit. And, above all, it must be practical and efficient in its method and purpose.

The problem of achieving such training is positive, not negative. It is one of attaining fundamental health, rather than of curing superficial disease; of developing the state as a producer, rather than as a policeman. It is not so much one of discovering how to do a certain set of things, as it is one of finding out how to infuse the way of doing all things with a certain ideal. In the past the traditional conception of training for citizenship connected it almost exclusively with training for political duties. So-called "civic education" has seemed to be either an indefinite thing with little that was practical about it, even when its aims were comprehended, or else a definite thing of narrow application, which was so remote from the affairs and interests of ordinary life as to be of little general appeal. The chief em-

phasis has been laid upon rights, rather than upon duties and responsibilities. Little emphasis has been laid upon the rest of the wide domain of economic, social and intellectual relationships, all of them of fundamental importance in determining the disposition, character, career and value of the citizen.

In general, we have held to the doctrine enunciated by Washington: "The education of our youth is the science of government; in a Republic what species of knowledge can be equally important?" This may have been true in his day and even later, but today training for citizenship really means training for the human relationships of life. The citizenship of the polling booth is only one, though a very important part, of citizenship. In the last analysis a free government lives with the daily life of its people. There is thus a citizenship of the home, a citizenship of the school, a citizenship of business, a citizenship of the community.

Nowhere, apparently, until the recent past was there to be seen any evidence of any wide-spread conception of training for citizenship in this sense. Today there is a growing recognition that the good citizens must be trained not only for his purely political relationships—duties, responsibilities and rights—but must also be trained for his other relationships as well, and in no less definite fashion. The old type of civics, or citizenship course, no more accomplished the purpose of training than did numerous other branches of the curriculum, very often not as much. Training for citizenship, where it was actually accomplished in our schools and colleges, was a by-product of education.

A study of such training reveals the absence of any specifications of the requirements of citizenship. In the professions, in the crafts, in practically every vocation of civilized mankind, there have been set up specifications of the achievements required before members are recognized as masters of their several vocations—in many cases, before they can perform any of the tasks connected with them. A large part of the organized educational system of the world has been definitely designed to train for the achievement of the ends thus specified. No such specifications have been established for citizenship which in a democratic community is the vocation of all.

The time has come to do for citizenship what has been done already for the professions and the crafts. This does not mean the setting up of formal requirements to which conformity is legally required, but it does mean a critical analysis and defining of the things involved in good citizenship which may serve as a basis upon which to build up an effective system of training for the performance of its duties and the fulfilling of its various obligations, as well as the enjoyment of its rights.

Although there are no formulated specifications of the requirements of good citizenship, nevertheless in the minds of men there is a certain consensus of opinion as to what in attitude and conduct constitutes good citizenship. Certain individuals in every community are accepted as good citizens; certain

actions are well-nigh universally held to be evidences of good citizenship in those who do them; a good citizen is almost always certain of gaining recognition by his associates for what he is. Standards of good citizenship, then, are scarcely needed to assist in the recognition and classification of citizens; we already possess a set of instinctive standards, not, however, explicitly defined, by which we measure our associates in the community. It is not classification, however, that is needed. The major problem is how to train, not how to recognize good citizenship.

It is, of course, obvious that the problem involves certain very different considerations from those involved in the case of the crafts, in the training for which capacity to do is the factor of chief importance. In the citizen, capacities, or abilities, are only a part of the whole. The test of the good mechanic is found in what he can do; a good citizen, however, is measured as much by what he is as by what he can do. Both the good citizen and the good mechanic must have acquired certain knowledge and information as a guide to understanding and conduct; but it must not be forgotten that the training of the effective citizen depends not only upon the acquisition of knowledge, but also upon the development of character and habits of productive thought and action. Adequate and proper training, therefore, must both develop in the learner the required disposition and attitudes and lead him to acquire the necessary knowledge as part of the process of that growth in productive capacity which is essential to good American citizenship.

In a system of universal education which will achieve this result lies the hope of American democracy. On the effectiveness of such a system depends the solution of our economic, social and political problems, which will mean ultimately a vast enhancement of national strength and a larger achievement of liberty. In no other way can the productive energy of America, upon which the whole structure of our civilization rests, be so fully released and guided into channels of constructive work.

From the foregoing it appears that the solution of the problem of training citizens requires, first, an analysis and definitions of the productive capacities, the knowledge and the personal attitudes essential to citizenship; and, second, the development of a technique of teaching that guarantees the acquisition of the necessary knowledge and fosters the growth of the desired attitudes as part of the process of developing creative men.

The remainder of this report presents definite suggestions as to how the requirements of the problem may be met practically. These suggestions are not drawn from thin air by a process of theoretical analysis of the nature of man. They are the result of a careful study of all that has been done in recent years by the schools, the industries and the United States Army and Navy in their practical efforts to train and classify young men as productive citizens and intrepid soldiers. No finality is claimed either for the suggested specifications of the essential elements of

citizenship or for the technique of training described. They are submitted as working hypotheses, which define the problem concretely and which may serve as a basis for further experiment and gradual growth.

## II. AN EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

In the direction of education for citizenship along the lines above indicated, many experiments full of educational promise are being made in schools, in industries and in the Army and Navy. One of the experiments which has thus far achieved the greatest success is that in progress in the Army under the direction of the Education and Recreation Branch of the War Plans Division of the General Staff. The story of the development of the system now in operation, and a description of the methods employed, are important in this inquiry.

The conception that general and vocational education, as well as military training, are essential elements in the training of an army was formed long before the war. It was formally expressed in section 27 of the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, which states: "In addition to military training, soldiers while in the active service shall hereafter be given the opportunity to study and receive instruction upon educational lines of such character as to increase their military efficiency and enable them to return to civil life better equipped for industrial, commercial and general business occupations."

The wisdom of this provision was amply demonstrated by the war experience. While little difficulty was encountered in finding enough well-educated and technically trained men to officer and equip an army of 500,000 men, troubles multiplied in geometric ratio as the size of the army increased. In its efforts to cope with this unprecedented situation, the War Department was compelled, before it could organize the authorized military forces, to give an enormous amount of intensive general education and vocational training, in addition to its regular military training. Schools were established at Army camps. Development battalions were organized. And when these agencies proved inadequate, the colleges and technical schools were drafted in the service.

In addition, the national welfare societies were called in and, supported by liberal gifts from a united people, did priceless work in supplying clean and healthy recreation, and in ministering to the moral and spiritual life of the soldiers. When the armistice was signed, it was education and recreation which supplied the means of maintaining the morale of the Army in the painful period of waiting for the boat home.

Because education, recreation and moral training were thus found to be indispensable elements in mobilizing an efficient fighting Army, they have now been incorporated with military training into the regular training program of the Army. A definite organization has been set up for conducting the work, and Congress is supporting it with annually increasing appropriations. During the past year it has proved to be the most effective means of main-

taining the enlisted strength of the Army, both in quantity and in quality. More than 60 per cent. of the new recruits enter the service because of the opportunities now offered for personal development and growth.

During the war the Army had a very definite single objective for all its varied training activities, namely, to develop the best possible soldiers in the least possible time. Under the impelling pressure of the situation, there was quickly evolved a training system which is a combination of military training and education, and which differs in many important respects from that now generally practiced in civilian schools. The essential difference between the two, so far as educational methods are concerned, can best be made clear by a concrete case, taken for simplicity and vividness, from the field of physical culture.

The old setting-up exercises were designed to develop fine physique. To this end the men were required to execute repeatedly the same motions all together. By this physical drill they acquired strong muscles and physical endurance, which enabled them to stand ordinary wear and tear well. But when confronted suddenly by unusual conditions, they were unable to cope with them. Physical strength alone did not make them masters of the situation. Hence, the time devoted to setting-up exercises was materially reduced and quickening games were introduced to supplement the exercises. The effort in the quickening game is to confront the men suddenly with an unexpected situation requiring prompt and vigorous action in a definite direction. Success in meeting the situation quickly brings high scores and failure brings mild punishment.

Everyone recognizes that the superiority of the quickening games over the setting-up exercises lies in the fact that games appeal to the sporting instinct and keep the man's attention on what he is doing, while the exercises can be done mechanically while the mind goes wool-gathering. The games, therefore, not only develop physical strength, but also attention, quickness, reason, good coördination and many other valuable attitudes and abilities. They thus exercise both mind and body simultaneously and build up, not muscle alone, but the entire man. Hence, they are valuable adjuncts to the military training of soldiers.

The same principle was applied by the Army to technical training and to general education during the war. The old manual training was designed to develop manipulative skill. To this end, the mechanic arts were analyzed into types of skill, like filing, chipping, drilling, turning; and each student was put through a series of exercises designed to develop these generalized skills one by one. Such training undoubtedly does increase skill, but it contributes little to the development of that prime requisite of a soldier, ability to make a quick estimate of a new situation and to determine promptly what action is needed to insure a favorable result.

In order to overcome this defect, the several technical occupations required in the Army were analyzed into the specific operations a soldier would be re-

quired to perform. Training, then, consists in giving the man a series of real jobs, each of which involves several fundamental operations of the trade. He is required to analyze the job, to make a bill of materials needed, and to plan how he will proceed to complete it. Army manuals and other reference books supply the standard information concerning the manipulative processes involved. Progress is individual in that each soldier advances as rapidly as he demonstrates proficiency by doing his job well and by answering numerous questions concerning the methods and means employed.

The jobs given involve, as far as practicable, productive work that must be done to improve living conditions at the camp. Exploitation of the men by assigning them to repair work that has for them no educational value is, however, strictly prohibited. Necessary repetition and drill are secured by so selecting the jobs assigned that each operation requiring practice is met a number of times in various combinations during the course. No fixed list of jobs is prescribed, but each teacher must make up his own list to fit his local conditions and opportunities.

This type of vocational training undoubtedly has high value as citizenship training. Not only does it train the soldier for a gainful occupation by which he can earn his living, but it offers him an opportunity for creative work, it impresses upon him an attitude toward productive work and a pride in achievement, and it tends to develop appreciation of an orderly and well-done job. Attention is also paid to the artistic side of the job, with the idea of fostering the desire for clean and attractive surroundings and for good living conditions. Combined with military training, which inculcates self-discipline and sense of service, its results are very striking.

The physical and vocational training methods just described are based on the same educational principles. Each begins by confronting the student with a situation which appeals to some one of his fundamental instincts—his creative instinct, his sporting instinct, his instinct for self-preservation, his instinct for coöperation. When some instinct has been thus aroused, the student himself applies his energy to achieve the immediate desired end. It is then the function of the teacher to direct this discharge of energy into channels which will result in successful achievement. As this process is repeated, the channels in which the energy discharges gradually become more marked, and habits are formed which ultimately develop the man into a competent workman. The measurement of progress by achievement is an added incentive to good work, since the man knows that his advancement depends upon the success of his own individual efforts, and is not limited by weakness or failure of his less-gifted classmates.

These principles and this technique have been applied in the Army, not only to the vocational training, but also to general education. It is this fact which is of peculiar interest to the colleges in considering courses designed to train for better citizenship and which justifies the present discussion. The

courses now used in the Army have been developed on the basis of the experience with the War Issues Course during the war.

The present Army course in general education consists of a series of discussions of vital problems. These problems are selected to appeal to one or more of the soldier's fundamental instincts, and each one depicts a specific situation which calls for action directed toward improvement. The discussion consists of an analysis of the situation, both from the point of view of the facts and experiences involved, and also from the point of view of its moral import. Information additional to that already possessed by the class is supplied by reading matter and references for study, which have been selected so as to increase the student's knowledge of the subject, and to define the moral issues involved. The discussion is guided by the teacher so that the class is eventually led to a conclusion, which is agreed to be the best solution from the point of view of a square deal and of more liberal opportunities for growth in social, economic and industrial life.

The problem of organizing the materials for such a course is a difficult one for the teacher, because the subject matter must be selected to meet several somewhat antagonistic requirements. It must appeal to the student and release his energy. It must deal with subject matter which the student must grasp in order to grow strong as a citizen. It must raise moral issues and guide the student's discussion of these issues in a way to develop his disposition and attitude toward right action. In meeting these difficulties in Army schools, it has been found of great assistance to hold every day a conference of all the teachers giving the course. This conference first made an analysis of the problem and agreed upon a specific definition of the objectives to be attained each day. It then discusses the results of each day's lesson and decides what questions shall form the basis of the next day's discussion and which phases of the subject shall be emphasized. The course is planned to extend over three years. A manual for the first year's work has just been published as the result of experience with soldier classes last winter at Camp Grant.

The work in general education in the Army is given two consecutive periods each day. The first is devoted to the discussion just outlined and the second is used for training in written and oral expression. In the latter, the soldiers write or state orally their conclusions concerning the problems of the previous hour. Their work is criticized from the point of view of clear expression and they are drilled in spelling, in penmanship, in punctuation and in composition. The two periods contain all the instruction given the elementary students in the basic subjects in general education, such as reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history and civics. Special courses in algebra, geometry, science, economics and history are offered for more advanced students after they have completed the general course.

In planning work of this type it is important to note that in all Army courses the subject matter is

organized about real jobs or real situations, rather than according to the customary departments of school instruction. Thus, a job in plumbing may involve physics, chemistry and mathematics; and, if so, the needed instruction in these subjects is given as part of the study of the job. Similarly, the discussion of a problem in general education may involve history, economics, geography, science, literature and art. If so, the required elements of these several subjects are included when needed. Review periods are used to classify in logical form ideas that need such classification. This type of organization is the converse of the one in ordinary use, in which subjects are presented in logical or chronological order first and then specific jobs or situations cited as applications.

The new Army education system has been in operation for a little over a year. Combined as it is with military training, the success has been so striking in laying sound foundations for citizenship in soldiers as to warrant the suggestion that civilian schools and colleges might increase the value of their contributions toward training for citizenship by introducing work of a similar nature and by organizing their other instruction along similar lines.

The first step toward the practical realization of this suggestion lies in the direction of framing a clear and specific statement of the objectives of such courses. As suggested on page 8, if the course is a single combination course, like those in the Army, this statement should specify the abilities, the knowledge and the attitudes essential to good citizenship. Although different individuals will differ widely in their statements of these specifications, the following is presented as a general outline of the type of statement that is required as a guide to the proper organization of such a composite course:

1. In the matter of abilities, good citizenship requires that one be able to defend his country and to contribute productively to the life of the times. To do this he must be both a good soldier and skillful in some trade or profession by which he earns his livelihood and cares for himself and family. He must also be able to enjoy and to improve his environment and the common inheritance of humanity which accrues from coöperation in creating ever larger opportunities for growth for all mankind.

2. As to intelligence, good citizenship requires that a man be reasonably informed concerning the fundamental processes of economic life, such as production, distribution, consumption, transportation, communication, taxation, money, credit, capital, labor, corporations, charities and corrections, and the protective functions of the military, the police and the law. In respect to his social environment, he should know something about health, education, religion, the family, the community, immigration, the control of living conditions, the development of liberty and the changing status of women. He should also be well posted on the workings and true functions of municipal, State and Federal Government, concerning his obligations to government, and concerning international relations. On the humanistic side he should

at least be interested in good literature, philosophy and the historical background of present events.

3. In the matter of disposition he should be inclined spontaneously to deal with his fellow men loyally, honestly, justly, tolerantly and with a spirit of kindness and coöperation. It should disturb his conscience if he is not producing creatively and industriously and living thriftily. He should be ready to accept responsibility and to act independently, courageously, yet with self-control and reverence for God and man. His judgment should always tend spontaneously to action in the direction of protecting the weak, of righting wrong and of liberating creative energy so as to secure the maximum opportunities for the growth of every human being.

4. If the course planned is a specialized course for more advanced students, the instructor must select from the more general requirements just stated the specific items which he intends to use as the specific objectives of the course. These must then be analyzed in detail and the problems for discussion chosen accordingly.

### III. CONCLUSIONS

The plans of the War Department for the education of the Army are highly significant and full of promise for the nation as a whole. The Army is leading the way toward a new day in training for citizenship, but it cannot perform the whole task, or even the larger part of it. Nor should it be expected to do so. The schools, elementary, secondary and higher, are the logical agencies through which this training should be given. They have been established for this purpose, they have the closest contact with all classes of the population, and theirs is the responsibility. Up to military age, at least, they must train the potential soldier and citizen.

In every school the citizenship course should come to be the central and fundamental part of the curriculum. Or else the work in the different subjects should be directed toward the same end. In either case, the course should be introduced early and continued through the high school, and the method and objective should remain the same throughout.

In the lower grades, emphasis should be laid, through the use of suitable material, on the development of essential attitudes and abilities, at the same time training the child to the formation of a clear conception of his immediate environment and his proper relation thereto. All the while he will be acquiring an ever-increasing fund of information and knowledge. And so in enlarging circles, as progress is made, more advanced material employed and more difficult problems taken up, the pupil will relate himself to his environment in its various phases.

No suggestion is here made of a course that will cover the same ground over and over; the whole idea is one of growth and progress, the progressive training and development of wholesome dispositions, the perfecting of essential abilities, and the acquisition of the knowledge and information that the good and equipped citizen ought to have. Better citizens are the objective, but good citizenship is a collective

expression, and, as the pupil is trained for citizenship, he is trained also for the business of living.

The question may properly be asked whether an already crowded curriculum can be stretched to admit a new course running through all the years of the schools. If the citizenship course is properly planned and properly directed along the lines indicated, the curriculum will involve no stretching. It undoubtedly will mean a reorganization, for many of the time allotments of the present program will be seen to be unnecessary. Here will be combined many of the things which are now treated separately. Their essentials will necessarily form a part of the citizenship course. Pupils will learn more easily, cover ground more rapidly and grasp as never before the interrelation of the various subjects dealt with in the material used. Such a course in the long run will result in a great saving of time and effort.

It must not, however, be supposed that such a course is here conceived to offer a liberal education in itself, but it is contended that it furnishes the best possible basis for a liberal education. The remarks of Dean Woodbridge in regard to the War Issues Course are strikingly applicable here:

"It is not surprising, therefore, that those who have had to do with this course are beginning to ask themselves if it does not constitute the elements of a liberal education for the youth of today. Born of the consciousness that a democracy needs to know what it is fighting for, it has awakened a consciousness of what we, as a people, need to know if our part of the world of today is to be intelligent, sympathetic and liberal. In the past education was liberalized by means of the classical tradition. It afforded for educated men a common background of ideas and commonly understood standards of judgment. For the present that tradition no longer suffices. If education is to be liberalized again, if our youth are to be freed from a confusion of ideas and standards, no other means looks so attractive as a common knowledge of what the present world of human affairs really is. The war has revealed that world with the impelling clearness which tragedy alone seems able to attain. . . . To the thoughtful, therefore, the course affords the opportunity to introduce into our education a liberalizing force which will give to the generations to come a common background of ideas and commonly understood standards of judgment."

Nor is the introduction of such a course another plan to make education a sugar-coated pill, easy to swallow. It is not "soft pedagogy." It will make education easier to acquire because it will lend new interest to much that has been often, under the most favorable conditions, only imperfectly understood by the pupil. It will be easier because it has purpose that can readily be grasped, because it leads somewhere, because it whips and stimulates every faculty. Properly directed, it means not less but more work, work that is purposeful, real, that has clearly defined relations to life, environment and knowledge. It is the type of work that yields true discipline and develops a true soldier, because it is a constant struggle

of the individual with the intrinsic difficulties of life.

Such a course requires a new type of teaching if definite objectives for citizenship training are to be established and accurate definitions of the work necessary for their attainment are to be formed. Emphasis now needs to be placed not on facts merely, but on their spirit and meaning through a proper interpretation and understanding of them. Only in this way can human effort be released and a more wholesome civic morale be built up and sustained.

These purposes can best be attained through the so-called applicatory method of teaching through consciously planned and complete units of purposeful work or activity which results in achievement. Through this method the pupil sees the useful ends to be attained and by applying to the problem or project in hand his present information, experience or skill is stimulated to achieve them. Through it he becomes acquainted with his environment and endeavors to understand it and to adjust himself to it. Such a method gives significance and meaning to the social, economic, political and intellectual activities about him. It reveals to him the usefulness of such activities and enables him to comprehend the relation between what he is doing and the purpose and value of it. Naturally the more intimate this relationship the more powerful and purposeful are the pupil's motives and the more whole-hearted is his effort. These motives then become concerned not with information, but with achievement, growth, effective social doing, with "learning to do by doing." Firm character and self-discipline inevitably result.

This method of teaching affords the pupil a natural approach to subject material, problems, projects, activities. It rests upon a social basis. It looks in the direction of adjustment to environment and stimulates the pupil to enter into the reality of living and to function productively in society by adapting himself and his interests to its requirements. It makes each new problem a fresh challenge to endeavor and thus increases capacity for quick and orderly thinking. It establishes contacts with life, furnishes powerful social and intellectual appeals, and relates everyday problems to the business of living.

Moreover, such a course and method will serve to give a new meaning to the so-called civic capacities, qualities, dispositions. These need to be stripped of the magic veneer of finality with which the old conceptions have clothed them. Loyalty, obedience, reverence, thrift, honesty and the others have been viewed too often as fixed and ultimate, rather than as changing, moving ends or results of civic training. We need to view them as the result of pursuits and activities and not as ends in themselves. We should seek not reverence, honesty, health, but to live more reverently, more honorably, more healthily in those everyday pursuits and activities. The endeavor of the citizen should not be to attain reverence, honesty, health as a generalized static outcome, but through reverent, honorable and healthy living to color and direct all his pursuits and activities so that life may be well proportioned, rather than "portioned out into strips and fractions."

Civic capacities like moral excellencies largely depend upon opportunities for wide sympathy, tolerance, intelligent analysis, decision; and civic deficiencies like moral failures have their root in the weakness of disposition, unsound or biased attitude. Civic capacities are not to be sought as abstractions separate and apart from participation in social activities. The citizen should be measured by the direction in which he is moving; he is bad if he is deteriorating; he is good if he is growing better. The attainment of reverence, honesty, health, is not the aim of citizenship; rather, it is the mark of progress and betterment; the means of civic improvement. The final aim and end is growth—the active process of changing existing situations for the increase of social welfare.

Because so large a proportion of American citizens go no further than the lower schools, it is important that instruction and training in the fundamentals of good citizenship should be given there. But the work should be carried on through the high school in the same manner, but with more advanced materials, and with a broader outlook. Nor should it stop there.

In the colleges and universities of the country a growing interest in the question of training for citizenship has manifested itself. Recently various experiments in that direction have been made or are at this time under way. Notable examples of these are the contemporary civilization course at Columbia and the citizenship courses at Stanford University and the University of Missouri. Such a course is also being given this year at the University of North Carolina. It is certain that others will be attempted at other places. It is of great importance that the institutions of higher learning should recognize the great opportunity here presented and take advantage of it. The schools will always remain the agency of chief importance for training the mass of citizens, but the service that can be performed by the colleges is of exceptional importance. Not only does the responsibility for training leaders rest upon the colleges, but even the greater obligation to equip and train the new type of teachers who will develop and direct this important work of the schools.

Upon the basis of the training already given in the schools results should be obtained that will not only contribute notably to preparing and motivating men and women for effective citizenship, but which will also tend greatly to the improvement of general scholarship. No college can afford to overlook the opportunity given by this work and turn over to other agencies the task which is in itself a challenge to the ability and vision of the institutions of high learning. It is their place to lead.

Every college and university in the United States should require for a degree such a course with the same objective and the same technique. With the vast amount of material suitable for college students and available for use, the students, directed, will obtain such a grasp of civic problems, acquire such a content of knowledge and information bearing upon them, and develop such sound opinions in respect to



them as will assure from the mass of college graduates of the future not alone good citizenship, but trained leadership.

Two methods by which such a course may be given present themselves. The first, which will be preferred in many institutions, is to institute a general course, conducted by a group of instructors on a common plan and outline with the same projects and problems. This has certain striking advantages, such as the benefit of the counsel and experience of all concerned with the giving of the course, the certainty of including in all the sections the things which are agreed upon as essential or even of large importance, the establishment of a standard, and the benefit and economy likely to result from the preparation of material for one large group of students.

The other plan, which will probably meet with the favor of a larger number of institutions, is to have the course given separately in several or all the departments which can establish the proper approach, such as history, government, economics, sociology, English literature and philosophy. In such a case, were the course required, the requirement could be fulfilled by each student electing the one offered by that department whose approach to the question interested him most. This method has many things to recommend it. It does not require large additions to the teaching staff for the specific purpose of giving the course. It gives a certain desirable flexibility and variation. It enhances the student's interest by allowing him opportunity to select the channel of approach. It offers less chance for a cut-and-dried course based upon dogmatic and academic opinion. It will, in many cases, lead to interdepartmental relationships of great educational value. It will give a stimulation to the teachers that will have good results.

In the case of the former plan, such a course would embrace and might therefore replace certain required courses as, for example, freshman history and English. In the case of the latter plan, the course should take the place of the first course in that subject.

In the Great War the colleges proved to a somewhat dubious public that they had given to their students training which made them of inestimable value to the nation in arms. Here is the opportunity for the colleges to give to young men and women training which will fit them specifically for the patriotic tasks of peace. To equip and send out into the world trained men and women who are related to their environment and to their duties and responsibilities in relation to it is a more difficult task by far, but in doing it is the promise of democracy.

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#### V. APPENDIX

The following analysis of the capacities, intelligence and attitudes which a productive citizen should have is presented as an example of the kind of definition of results which each teacher should make as a guide in framing a course in accordance with the recommendations in the foregoing report. The sug-

gestion is not made with any claim to finality. Doubtless those giving the subject consideration will add to the content of information and knowledge and to the specified civic attitudes and abilities much that occurs to them as of equal importance with those here mentioned.

#### 1. Civic Capacities

The trained and creative citizen must possess as a minimum the following capacities:

*To read, write and cipher;* to express himself in speaking as well as in writing; to handle proficiently and economically that body of processes commonly called arithmetic; in order that he may be able to cooperate in the movements of the times, and, to utilize and enjoy the resources which social inheritance has placed at his disposal.

*To minister to self-preservation* and win adequate support and fullest development, by maintaining himself in the best possible health, by earning his own livelihood, by discovering the vocation for which he is best adapted, and by performing effectively the duties required of it.

*To care for a family,* support it adequately, comfortably and wholesomely, provide for its health and assume responsibility for its proper protection, education and training.

*To participate in the life of the community* in an intelligent, productive and vital way.

*To defend his country.*—The obligation for military service in an emergency is one of the fundamental duties of citizenship. The war has demonstrated how disastrous it is to have to require this service of men who have had no military training or experience.

*To make intelligent use of leisure.*—Properly employed, leisure becomes the fountain head of individual and social growth and human betterment, contributes to the healthfulness of body and mind, and develops nobler tastes and ideals; improperly used, it promotes idleness and vice, degeneracy and crime.

*To recognize cultural and esthetic interests* as valuable adjuncts of social efficiency; to enjoy and appreciate the interests and products of civilization which help him perform not only his special work, but the general work of citizen, parent, friend, human being, or, in other words, the whole business of living.

*To think straight* by subordinating details to a unity of purpose, and by weighing and evaluating impartially and accurately facts and evidence so as to reach sane conclusions regardless of outcome. This means intellectual thoroughness, or "seeing the thing through."

#### 2. Civic Intelligence

*Civic intelligence* includes that information and knowledge which must be acquired in the process of developing civic capacities in order to make them effective in conduct. What should be the minimum of this information is, of course, a question concerning which there will be a variety of opinion. Additions, however, can readily be made, but all will doubtless agree that the productive citizen should

have clear conceptions and reliable information concerning at least the following factors in his economic, social, political and intellectual environment:

*Production, distribution and consumption.*—The life of the modern world is primarily industrial. The daily life of the citizen, his welfare and that of society at large, the activities of government, are all intimately and fundamentally concerned with industrial questions. The general conditions affecting the struggle for existence should be comprehended by every citizen, especially those which touch most intimately his own interests and environment.

*Transportation and communication*, which are vital factors in modern civilization, affecting profoundly the economic and intellectual life of every individual. The equipped citizen must know the essential facts concerning them and their function in the life and progress of the world.

*Charities and corrections*, the causes of dependency, the means by which the community seeks to make the people self-supporting and able to provide for those who are dependent through no fault of their own, and the agencies for the relief of dependents, such as institutions for orphans, hospitals, homes for the aged and the crippled, and other social service agencies. Likewise, he should have an understanding of the proper attitude toward criminals and delinquents, and the methods by which society seeks to prevent crime and to correct those who have fallen into error.

*Taxation*, which profoundly affects every person. Directly, it touches every taxpayer; indirectly, it touches all industry and trade. It has a vital relation to the cost and standards of living. It is one of the most far-reaching manifestations of human coöperation.

*The relations of labor and capital* profoundly affect the life of every individual. They determine, in many respects, the welfare of society. They bear a close relation to the practical policies and operations of government. They include such questions as hours and wages of labor, conditions of employment, strikes and industrial disputes, and, in their mass, form a large part of the problems of industry and industrial justice.

*Money and credit* are agencies of coöperation. They are fundamental necessities of all industry. Their origin, their function, the distinctions between them, and sound methods of handling them should be clearly grasped by everyone.

*Geographic influence in history*, including knowledge of the ways in which man's struggle to master his environment has affected his development, his interests, his capacities, his opinions and convictions—in short, his history—is of tremendous value in the formation of proper conceptions and attitudes.

*Health*, including the principal rules and laws that promote, the need and desire for, and the necessity for promoting, personal and public health; the dependence of individuals and communities upon one another for health; the means which communities adopt to promote and regulate health; and the responsibility of the citizen for his own health and that of the community.

"*The family is the school of all the virtues*"; the nation will be secure so long as it possesses a good home life. Every citizen should have a sympathetic knowledge of the history and development of the family as the fundamental unit of society. In human evolution all successful individual relations find complete fruition in the family relation. On this, modern civilization rests. In the family are developed the habits of virtuous action and the rules which have been established for the welfare of all. The surest way to secure good government in the community is through good government in the home and family.

*Community problems* deal with the various relationships and interdependencies that exist between the members of the community, together with the individual's obligation to take part in and contribute to the common welfare. The best of the citizen's life comes from intelligent participation in the life of the community. Good citizenship means the active performance of all duties as a member of a community.

*Education*, the purpose and place of education, its various important relations to democracy should be understood. Every citizen should realize that it is both a privilege and a duty which he owes to the community to equip himself as fully as possible to render the best service possible. He should recognize his responsibility for helping to provide for adequate and safe educational opportunities and facilities for all members of the community in which he lives.

*The conditions of living*, whether in urban or rural communities, constitute one of the most important factors affecting social well-being. The mixed character of the crowded population and their conflicting interests; the distribution of the population involving transportation and tenement districts; municipal ownership and government; sanitation, the water supply and sewerage; police and fire protection; street cleaning; smoke abatement; schools, courts, charities, and public recreation are some of the problems of city life concerning which every citizen should have an intelligent understanding.

Similarly, he should understand that whatever affects the rural sections of the country is of grave national concern, not only because of the material dependence of society upon farms for food, but because of the social, educational and moral influence of that half of the population which still lives in the country and follows farming as an occupation. He needs to have a sound knowledge of the increasingly important problems of country life, such as the constant drift of country people citywards, the education of country children, roads and other means of communication, the labor situation in rural regions, methods of farming and similar interrelated problems.

*Liberty*, including political liberty, liberty of conscience, of speech, of the press, has been won in civic struggles. Knowledge concerning this long human struggle for the achievement of liberty, and an appreciation of the changing conception of the term, will best stimulate and equip the individual for the continuance of this ceaseless struggle in his own time.

*Immigration and racial problems*, which affect life in the United States more than in any other country. They touch intimately such matters as labor, wages, cost and standards of living, production, distribution, political ideals and practice, and a host of other questions of not less importance. The matter of the policy of the United States in respect to it, for example, is a political, social and industrial question of the utmost importance. Because of its tremendous alien population, the United States is confronted with many problems growing out of the customs, ideals and aspirations of different racial groups. The citizen must have a basis of informational knowledge upon which to posit his opinions on the subject.

*The changing status of women* should be grasped, including the economic, social and political significance of her new place in the occupations, the rights and privileges which have been won for her, and the possibilities of her influence on social questions, such as personal and public morality, education, the family, child labor, sanitation, and health, law and government.

*Religion*, its universality, its significance and its preponderant influence in shaping civilization; that it was one of the chief elements in the foundation of our present superstructure, that it has always played a large part in educational, social and political relationships, and that the religious element in human culture is essential; all this must be presented to every citizen whose training and education aim at completeness and proportion.

*The workings of Government*—local, State and National—should be familiar subjects to every properly equipped citizen. He should know that government is simply a social means, and that it should never be an end in itself. Particularly, should he be familiar with the duties of the citizen in relation to government and with the problems which must be faced and settled by the government. Without such knowledge he cannot express in action the responsibility which he feels and the convictions which he holds.

*International problems* are today of first importance because the whole world is now in close communication, and the interests of nations are inseparably interwoven. Never again can America, whether it will or not, be isolated from the rest of the world.

*Literature and philosophy*, which constitute the heritage of the world today, will be found the finest of materials for developing the attitudes and dispositions essential to good citizenship. In them is to be found the reflection of social, economic, political and intellectual movements, past and present. The proper understanding of these will assist men in working out the meaning of their lives and the nature of the world in which they live. It will tend vastly to increase the fund of informational knowledge, humanize the approach to every subject, give increased facility to self-expression, widen the horizon, ripen and mellow thought, and bring the resources of humanism to the national service.

*History of environment* involves in time an understanding of that historical background without which complete understanding is impossible. The well-informed citizen requires some knowledge of the past as a guide to opinion and conviction concerning contemporary affairs and problems. He needs not only knowledge of the origins of our own peculiar system, but also of the essentials of the history of the entire civilization existent in the world today. Such knowledge will serve also to develop many of the attitudes and dispositions essential to good citizenship, will tend to broaden the mental horizon, and furnish problem material of the most valuable sort.

### 8. Civic Attitudes

The productive citizen must finally have developed as a result of his inheritance and his training certain civic attitudes—those habits of mind and heart which express themselves in a disposition to serve the community and the nation for the best interests of all. They are conceived, not as ends in themselves, but rather as habits of mind which regularly influence and guide conduct in respect to concrete situations. They are instinctive in all sane men and need only healthful environment for their full development. The good citizen has the disposition:

*To act loyally.*—The habit of loyal action touches and controls one's attitude in respect to himself, his convictions, and his traditions, and his relation to his home, family, associates, occupation and country. It should enter largely into every social relation.

*To coöperate.*—The spirit of coöperation includes good will, readiness to give and take in the activities of life, unselfishness, generosity, obedience to law, desire for intelligent service, respect for both the majority and the minority. It is essential because it is that social disposition which enables the citizen to develop powerful team-play with his fellows with a minimum of friction. As the sound basis of every social relationship, it involves also adaptability, tolerance and intelligent sympathy, in that it is necessary for relating and adapting one to the necessities of one's environment.

*To act honestly.*—Honest action is the sine qua non of good citizenship. Upon it is based the whole fabric of the social relations of mankind—the prosperity and security of industry and commerce, the comfort and stability of all personal relations, the effectiveness and responsibility of government, and the peaceful and friendly relations of the nations of the world.

*To act justly.*—The disposition to act justly enables its possessor to form sane attitudes as to principles, persons and situations; and to act upon the basis of such attitudes.

*To work industriously.*—Industry, including not only readiness or willingness, but an active desire to participate productively in industrial, social, political and intellectual affairs, is the basis of economic independence and productive functioning in society.

*To live thriftily.*—Thrift living should be the twin of industrious living. It includes spending wisely as well as saving wisely. It is essential be-

cause it assists in securing economic independence, enhances creative power and cultivates the habit of looking forward.

*To act tolerantly.*—Tolerance or open-mindedness is essential to full social coöperation. It does not mean being indifferent to wrong or injustice, but it does mean the ability to live and let live, to respect the sincere opinions and convictions of others.

*To live reverently.*—Reverence includes respect in its various forms, such as respect for women, for children, for the aged, for property, for religion, for law, for sanctioned institutions, for sound traditions—the great heritage of the past.

*To act responsibly.*—The feeling of responsibility with moral conviction is one of the mainsprings which furnish the motive power of the best civic action.

*To act independently.*—Independent action develops a consciousness of power in one's self, and furnishes a resourcefulness which enables the citizen to sustain himself in thought and action, which makes for sound motives, and which develops whole-

some pride in the achievements and good character of home, occupation, community and country.

*To act with self-control.*—Self-controlled action serves as a balance wheel to primitive instinct or irrational impulse. It is a fundamental basis of all good social conduct.

*To act kindly.*—To apply to all the concrete situations of life kindness and intelligent sympathy, understanding of the problems, difficulties and necessities of others, neighborliness, is essential in making one socially minded, and, hence, coöperative. This habit tempers and controls the natural selfishness of the individual.

*To live creatively.*—Creative thought and action constitute prime sources of power, which drive men to contribute in a positive, effective way to the welfare of society. The creative instinct is, perhaps, the most impelling of all human incentives.

*To live courageously.*—Courageous conduct, both physical and moral, is essential in all the relations and situations of life.

# Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship

## PART V

SYLLABUS FOR ELEVENTH GRADE STUDY OF AMERICAN HISTORY  
PREPARED IN CONSULTATION WITH JOSEPH SCHAFER, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE  
ON HISTORY AND EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP IN THE SCHOOLS  
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### INTRODUCTION FOR TEACHERS

The following syllabus is intended to be a help and guide, not a dogmatic dictation of topics and methods of treatment. The object has been to group the facts of history in such a way as to show several of the great movements and phases of growth which have most essentially influenced American thought and life. The material suggested is suited to a course motivated along three lines, and it is the earnest hope of the Committee and of the author that the teaching of high school history in America may yield these fruits:

1. An intelligent, liberally critical attitude toward material presented, which will lead students to examine all alleged facts before accepting them.
2. A patriotism that is not chauvinism, but which recognizes the faults and failures of our people, and the moral responsibility of every citizen to study national problems and help to solve them.
3. A social spirit transcending the bounds of any political unit, which draws inspiration from the achievements of a nation "conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal," and which is fired with the desire to extend the victories of democracy to future years and to many peoples.

### NOTES ON BIBLIOGRAPHY

Schools should possess as many of the standard sets as possible, especially Channing, *History of the United States from 1600 to 1815*, 4 vols.; McMaster, *History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War*, 8 vols.; and Rhodes, *History of the United States*

from 1850, in 8 vols. Coman's *Industrial History of the United States* and Bogart's *Economic History of the United States* are also of basic importance. One high school text, Forman's, has been included in the lists, not because it is the only one in which the topics will be found adequately treated, but because it was thought desirable to indicate the scope of the subject in a comparatively elementary book, which might represent the text-work expected. Standard source-books, especially Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*, are taken for granted.

The following abbreviations are used in the reference lists:

- Amer. Hist. Rev.—American Historical Review.
- Atl. M.—Atlantic Monthly.
- Am. M.—American Magazine.
- Cen. M.—Century Magazine.
- Ind.—Independent.
- L. D.—Literary Digest.
- N. Amer.—North American Review.
- Outl.—The Outlook.
- Sci. Am.—Scientific American.
- A. C. S.—American Crisis Biographies, E. P. Oberholzer, ed.
- A. N. S.—American Nation Series, A. B. Hart, ed.
- A. S. S.—American Statesmen Series, J. T. Morse, Jr., ed.
- C. of A.—Chronicles of America, Allen Johnson, ed.
- H. of N. A.—History of North America, G. C. Lee and F. N. Thorpe, eds.
- R. S.—Riverside Series.

## I. THE PRECONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD

## GENERAL REFERENCES

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 man: 1-9; Sparks: "Expansion of the American People," 17-24.  
 Columbus  
 Becker: 22-25; Bourne: 8-53; Fiske: "Discovery," 335-446; Forman: 8-12; Sparks: 23-9; Thwaites: "Colonies," 23-5.  
 Spanish and Portuguese explorations and settlements (to be studied especially as giving a key to modern conditions in Latin-America).  
 Becker: 22-39; Bourne: 63-83, 190-201; Forman: 8-12, 25-30; Sparks: 30-2; Thwaites: "Colonies," 27-32.  
 Verrazano, Champlain, Cartier.  
 Crockett and Wallis: 10-13; Fiske: "Dutch and Quaker Colonies," 58-73; Forman: 30-33; Sparks: 29-31; Thwaites: "France in America," Ch. I.  
 The transfer of leadership from Spain to England. Beware of over-emphasis upon the Armada; show the economic causes as well.  
 Bacon: "English Voyages." select.; Becker: 39-45; Bourne: 54-63; Crockett and Wallis: 15-17; Forman: 36-39; Sparks: "Expansion," 31-5; Thwaites: "Colonies," 36-44.  
 English sea-power.  
 Andrews: "Colonial Period," 106-28; "Colonial Self-Government," Ch. I; Becker: 38-45, 45-54; Cheyney: 161-9; Forman: 34-6.  
 Liberalizing movements in England and on the Continent: The Renaissance, the Reformation, the Counter-Reformation. Show the relationship of these movements and the struggles growing out of them, to migration to the New World.  
 Becker: 80-86; Robinson: 279-337; use standard texts in modern history.  
 Absolutism in Spain and France had also its influence in making the New World, and especially in limiting Spanish and French influence therein.  
 Becker: 30-9; Robinson: 338-53; standard texts.  
 THE AMERICAN PHASE OF THE STRUGGLE FOR EMPIRE BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE  
 (Third Week)  
 English settlements on the Atlantic coast. A short outline of settlements should be given, and several colonies studied as types of groups. Massachusetts, New York and Virginia make a good selection, but others may be studied if texts or local interests dictate. General outlines of both social and political life should be studied briefly.  
 The northern type.  
 Andrews: "Colonial Period," 62-68, 83-7; "Colonial Self-Government," 41-56; "The Fathers of New England," selections; Becker: 56, 86-99, 45-54; Eggleston: 159-219; Forman: 57-78; Lecky: 13-18; Thwaites: "Colonies," 57, 113-40.  
 The middle type.  
 Andrews: "Colonial Period," 75-82, 86-8; "Colonial Self-Government," 91-100; Becker: 130-7; Forman: 91-101; Lecky: 18-24; MacDonald: "Select Charters," No. 29; Thwaites: "Colonies," 57, 196-207.  
 The southern type.  
 Andrews: "Colonial Period," 68-75; "Colonial Self-Government," 202-14; Becker: 54-63, 165-8; Eggleston: 25-98; Forman: 79-90; Mary Johnston: "Pioneers of the Old South," selections or whole book; Lecky: 24-30; MacDonald: "Select Charters," Nos. 1, 2, 3; Thwaites: "Colonies," 57, 64-81.  
 The comparative colonial policies of the French, Spanish, Dutch and English. Note that although the English colonies revolted because they were not allowed as much freedom as they wished, that they had far more than the colonies of other nations. Compare the chances for self-government under the different systems. Note the opportunities for economic development. In connection with this, mercantilism should be explained, with its effect on colonial policy.  
 Andrews: "Colonial Self-Government," Ch. II; Bourne: 201-43; Crockett and Wallis: 17-23; Forman: 40-55; Sparks: 36-47; Thwaites: "Colonies," 45-63; "France in America": 123-42.

## AN AWAKENED OLD WORLD

## (First and Second Weeks)

## TOPICS

The Europe of the 15th and 16th centuries. Culture conditions—the invention of printing, the Renaissance and the Reformation. Commercial life, routes and interests. The great trading cities and the spice trade. The incentives for exploration, especially for a short route to India.

Becker: 1-22; Bourne: 3-7; Fiske: "Discovery of America," 148-334 (a good special assignment); For-

The world-struggle of France and England for empire.

- a. The Old World phase. Use standard texts in modern history, showing the broader relationships of the several wars.
- b. The American struggle and its meaning and results. Andrews, C. M.: "Anglo-French Commercial Rivalry," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 20:539-56, 760-80 (advanced: for teacher and strongest students); Crockett and Wallis: 17-71; Fiske: "New France and New England," 733-56; Forman: 125-39; Greene: 106-65; Hart: "Formation of the Union," 22-37; Thwaites: "Colonies," 277-8; Thwaites and Howard: "Social and Economic Forces in American History," Chs. V and VI; "France in America," Chs. VI, VII, IX; Wrong: selections or whole book.

#### THE STRUGGLE FOR REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT (Fourth Week)

In England. It is important that students should realize that the American struggle was only a part of a greater struggle for a more liberal government, carried on both in the mother land and in the colonies.

Becker: 234-43; Hart: "Formation of the Union," 3-9; Cheyney: 177-98; Ogg and Beard, "National Governments and the World War," 3-5, 176-80; Thwaites: "Colonies," 113-5.

In the colonies. The constant effort to establish and increase self-government in America made "little Englands" of the colonies, and, in certain respects in which economic and social influences were favorable, the newer settlements outstripped the mother country.

Andrews: "Colonial Period," 155-86; "Colonial Self-Government," 22-40; Crockett and Wallis: 72-82; Hart: "Formation," etc., 8-11; Lecky: 8-12.

#### INDEPENDENCE (Fifth and Sixth Weeks)

Freedom did not come like a thunder-clap upon the winning of the Revolutionary War, but had been largely won in preceding years through many peaceful contests. Political independence was the last of many phases of freedom from unwise and unwelcome restraint, against which the American colonists struggled in common with thinking men in all lands. Before the Revolution, the colonists had gained a large measure of freedom in:

1. Social life. Andrews: "American Folkways," 1-130, 204-37; "Colonial Period," 99-108; "Colonial Self-Government," 288-304; Becker: 162, 166-9, 172-4; Earle: 36-257, 289-387; Forman: 154-7; Greene: 314-24; Thwaites and Howard: cit., Ch. 3.
2. Religion. Andrews: "Colonial Folkways," 161-78; "Colonial Self-Government," 304-10; Becker: 184-200; Earle: 1-36; Greene: 300-4; Thwaites and Howard: 45-54, 54-78; "Colonies," 110-1, 183-92, 229-31.
3. Commerce. Andrews: "Colonial Commerce," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 20:43-63, Oct., 1914; "Colonial Self-Government," 314-30; Becker: 202-24, 169-70; Forman: 107-9, 152-4; Greene: 283-300; Thwaites: "Colonies," 104-6, 185-6.
4. Industry. Andrews: "Colonial Folkways," 178-203; "Colonial Self-Government," 310-3, 330-36; "Colonial Period," 90-99; Becker: 176-8; Greene: 304-15; Thwaites and Howard: 118-20; "Colonies," 102-4, 184-5, 224-6.
5. The Press, and also in Education. Andrews: "Colonial Folkways," 130-61; "Colonial Self-Government," 310-3; Earle: 257-88; Becker: 170-2; Greene: 304-15; Lecky: 31-4.
6. Speech. Forman: 157-8; Sparks: 61-4; see also supra.
7. Legislation. Becker: 165-6, 191; Forman: 111-3; Greene: 190-209; Hart: "Formation," etc., 11-5; Lecky:

35-49; Ogg and Beard: 19-23; Page, R. W.: "British-American Adventures Towards Liberty," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 35:49-55; Thwaites: "Colonies," 268-71.

#### 8. Control of magistrates.

Becker: 162-5; Greene: 166-209; Lecky: 49-50; Ogg and Beard: 17-9; Thwaites: "Colonies," 109-11, 192-5, 231-2, 271-7.

The break with England—a phase of the English struggle between constitutional and absolutist government. If the military phase be treated at all, it should be outlined briefly by general campaigns, as time is too valuable to be used in this way. Try to arrive at a fair summary of the causes, which seem, aside from the opinions of a few firebrands, to have been largely economic.

Becker: 215-34; Chittenden, H. M.: "Destiny Not Manifest," in *Atl. M.*, 117:643-6, May, 1916; Corwin, E. S.: "The French Objective in the American Revolution," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 21:33-61, advanced; Forman: 158-81; Golder, F. A.: "Catherine II and the American Revolution," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 21:92-6, Oct., 1915; Hart: "Formation," etc., 43-69; Jusserand, J. J.: "Our First Alliance," in *Nat. Geog. M.*, 31:518-48, June, 1917; Lecky: 459-85; McLaughlin: 3-34; Page, R. W.: "Our Debt of Gratitude to France," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 34:59-67; Pellew, G.: "John Jay," 144-228; Van Tyne: "Social and Economic Forces in American History," 117-91; "The French Treaty with America," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 21:528-41, April, 1916.

Freed from English control, the new states experimented with a government which went to the extreme of individualism. The "Period of the Articles" illustrates the impracticability of a political system which does not correspond to the degree of economic interdependence attained. This should be concretely illustrated by examples of tariff troubles between neighboring states, etc.

Bryce: "American Commonwealth, II," 9-27; Farrand: 211f; Fiske: "Critical Period in American History," 90-7; Forman: 199-203; Hart: "Formation," 92-8; Johnson: "Readings," 74-84; McLaughlin: 34-52; also in "Social and Economic Forces," Ch. 8, 138-59; MacDonald: "Documentary Source-Book, No. 51"; Walker: "Making of the Nation," 1-20.

#### THE CONSTITUTION (Seventh Week)

The insufficiency of the Articles of Confederation.

Bryce, cit.: 20-1; Farrand: 42-53; Fiske: "Critical Period," 97-133; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 1-25; Hart: "Formation," 99-107, 109-17; McLaughlin: 53-107; Nicolay, H.: "Our Nation in the Building," in *Cen. M.*, 91:189ff; Ogg and Beard: 30-2.

The preliminaries to the making of the Constitution.

Farrand: 54-67; Fiske: "Critical Period," 207-222; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 25-9; "Readings," 93-6, 99-102; McLaughlin: 168-200; Ogg and Beard: 32-4; Sumner, Hamilton: 130-4; Walker: 21-40.

The process of constitution-making. Class alignment for and against the new order; clash of interests and theories; compromises and the final result.

Bryce: 21-8; Farrand: 68-210; Fiske: "Critical Period," 222-307; Forman: 213-7; Gay: "Madison," 84-109; Johnson: 29-38; Johnson, "Readings," 110-2; Walker: 25-35, 35-50; McLaughlin: 200-76; Morse: "Benjamin Franklin," 401-5.

Ratification.

Bryce: 26-7; Fiske: "Critical Period," 306-50; Gay: "Madison," 110-21; Hart: "Formation," 128-33; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 38-45; Lodge, H. C.: "Alexander Hamilton," 70-83; McLaughlin: 276-317; Ogg and Beard: 39-40; Sumner, "Hamilton," 134-40; Walker: 51-72.

The place of the Constitution in American government, and its influence, first in our own country and later in others. It is unique among state documents.

Bryce: 27-31; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 38-45; Johnson: "Readings," from *Federalist*, 128-35; Sumner: "Hamilton," 140-2.

## II. THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD TO THE TEST OF UNION IN THE CIVIL WAR

### General References

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- Beard, C. A.: "An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States." Macmillan, 1913.
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- , "Benjamin Franklin." Houghton Mifflin, 1889. A. S. S.
- , "Daniel Webster." Houghton Mifflin, 1897. A. S. S.
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- Roosevelt, T.: "The Winning of the West." 4 Vols. Putnam's.
- Schafer, J.: "The Pacific Slope and Alaska." Barrie, 1904. H. of N. A.
- , "A History of the Pacific Northwest." Macmillan, 1918.
- , "Oregon Pioneers and American Diplomacy." In *Essays in American History*, dedicated to F. J. Turner. Holt, 1910, pp. 35-57.
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- Sparks, E. E.: "The Expansion of the American People." Scot Foresman, 1900.

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- Sumner, W. G.: "Alexander Hamilton." Dodd Mead, 1890.
- , "Jackson." Houghton Mifflin, 1895.
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- Wilson, Woodrow: "Division and Reunion. 1829-1909." Longmans Green, 1909. Epochs' Series.

### A CHRONOLOGICAL SURVEY

#### (Eighth Week)

NOTE.—The following chronology does not profess to analyze American history in any fundamental way. It is simply a chronology of political periods by party domination, as indicated by the very obvious test of possession of the presidency; and these administrations are grouped in a way to make memorization easy. All students should learn the outline, so as to be able to use it readily without undue brain-probing in the study of the subsequent work, which is topically arranged. The succession of political administrations in American history is not difficult to learn when they are rationally grouped, and even the ancient bugbear of dates becomes a simple matter when reckoned by Olympiads from the basic dates at the beginnings and ends of the five main periods. The dates of elections have been given rather than of inaugurations, for simplicity and ease in memorizing.

An outline of political administrations.

1. The period of Federal domination, 1789-1800.  
Washington, 2 terms. Adams (John)
2. The period of Democratic domination, 1800-1840.  
a. Jeffersonian Democracy, 1800-1828.  
Jefferson, 2 terms. Monroe, 2 terms.  
Madison, 2 terms. Adams (John Quincy).  
Jackson, 2 terms. Van Buren.
3. Whig-Democratic alternation, 1840-60.  
Harrison and Tyler, Whig.  
Polk, Democratic.  
Taylor, Whig.  
Pierce, Democratic.  
Buchanan, Democratic.
4. The period of Republican domination, 1860-84.  
Lincoln and Lincoln-Johnson, 2 terms.  
Grant, 2 terms.  
Hayes.  
Garfield and Arthur.
5. Republican-Democratic alternation, 1884-1920.  
Cleveland, Democratic.  
Harrison, Republican.  
Cleveland, Democratic.  
McKinley and McKinley-Roosevelt, 2 terms, Republican.  
Roosevelt, Republican.  
Taft, Republican.  
Wilson, 2 terms, Democratic.

Alignment of support and opposition to the Constitution. The Constitution provided a more advanced, unified, and responsible government than the Articles, and its acceptance involved a sacrifice of local privilege and a wider social and political co-operation. As always under such circumstances, conflicting interests emerged to render the solution difficult.

Bryce: 27; Hart: 137-41, 141-6; Lodge: 65-73; McLaughlin: "Confed. and Const.," 300ff; Sumner: "Hamilton," 141-3; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 39-43, 62-7.

Hamilton.

a. Theory of government: Hamilton believed in a "strong" government, supported by the monied interests and conservative tradition.

Forman: 222-5; Johnson, cit.: 41ff; Lodge: 58-65; Sumner: "Hamilton," 126-31; Walker, cit.: 130.



- b. Practical problem-meeting for a new-born nation. The constructive work of Hamilton and Washington in setting up the machinery of government.

1. Domestic affairs.

Bassett: "Federalist System," 27-41; Forman: 226-30; Hart: "Formation," 147-54; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 46-67; Lodge: 84-135; MacDonald: "Doc. Source-Book, No. 55"; Nicolay: "Our Nation in the Building," in *Cen. M.*, 91:190ff; Sumner: "Hamilton," 144-83; Walker: 73, 130.

2. Foreign relationships.

Bassett: 84-100; Forman: 234-7, 238-40; Hart: "Formation," 157-73; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 68-88; Lodge: 153-223; Pellet: 221-61; Walker: 101-167, select.; Sumner: "Hamilton," 200-24.

The development of party opposition. This first growth of party feeling and methods should be studied in the light of the students' knowledge of present-day party matters.

Bassett: 43-55, 276-96; Forman: 230-3, 240-2; Gay: 164-83; Hart: "Formation," 155-7, 173-5; Johnson: 105-22; Lodge: 136-52, 223-36; Nicolay, cited above; Sumner: "Hamilton," 184-91, 231-8.

### ELECTIVE

#### (Ninth Week)

This week may be given to review, or the students may be assigned individual topics to be worked out in essays or oral presentation. The following subjects are suggested as appropriate for such work, which should give training in reading, combination, composition, the drawing of conclusions, the making of bibliographies, and the comparison and criticism of sources of information:

1. A study of the military phases of the Revolution.

Becker: 253-74; Crockett and Wallas: ; Hart: "Formation," 63-89; Paine: "The Old Merchant Marine," 1-50; Van Tyne: "American Revolution," select.; Lecky: "American Revolution," Channing: "History of the United States," Vol. III, select.; Trevelyan: "American Revolution," 4 Vols.

2. A comparison of Revolutionary leaders, e. g.: Otis, Adams, Henry, Franklin, Washington, Greene, Morris, etc.

Use available biographies, cyclopedia articles, etc.

3. The lives of French peasants on the St. Lawrence estates, compared with the lives of Dutch peasants on the patroon estates on the Hudson, or English settlers in any selected colony.

Dix: "Champlain," 206ff; Fiske: "New France," etc., 72-133; "Social and Economic Forces in American History," Ch. 5, 79-97; Parkman: "Pioneers," 361-93, 411-64.

4. The effect of Spanish colonial policy on the civilization of the New World.

Bolton, H. E.: "The Missions in the Spanish-American Colonies," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 23: 42-61; Bourne: "Spain in America," 202-42; Harding, C. H.: "The Early Spanish-Colonial Exchequer," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 23: 779-96.

5. The Proclamation Line of 1763 and its influence in making the Revolution.

Hart: "Formation," 34-7, 39-47; Lecky: 1-8; Paxson: "Last American Frontier," 7-9; Thwaites: "France in America," 266-80.

6. East and West Florida, the forgotten 14th and 15th colonies.

Bassett: 69-83; Bourne: 175-89; Channing: 140-54; Hart: "Formation," 37, 96, 185; Johnson: "A Century of Expansion," 61-81; Sparks: "Expansion," 188-95.

7. The Northwest Ordinance.

Fiske: "Critical Period," 187-207; Hart: "Formation," 107-9; Hosmer: "Miss. Valley," 75-99,

100-17; Johnson: "Readings," 143-50; Sparks: "Expansion," 5-8, 104-19.

8. How John Marshall carried on the Federalist Régime.

Games, C. N.: "John Marshall and the Spirit of America," in *North American Review*, 205: 87; 92; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 134-41, 331-45; Magruder: "John Marshall," 160-202, 254-84; Walker: 167.

Other topics may be selected according to current interest or material at hand.

### THE DEMOCRATIC REVOLUTION, 1800-1815

#### (Tenth and Eleventh Weeks)

Jeffersonian democracy—the triumph of a new idea. A compromise between an outworn system of class control and an as yet unattainable ideal. How it worked in practice:

1. When a greater power imposed upon it—the Rights of Neutrals and the War of 1812.

Babcock, in "Social and Economic Forces": 174-7; Channing: 195-209, 246-55; Forman: 261-76; Gay: 254-308; Hart: "Foundations of American Foreign Policy": 26-30; Hosmer: 148-53; Johnson: "Union and Democracy," 179-244; Walker: 196-204, 217-229; Schurz: 66-101; Semple: 134-49; Nicolay, cit: 9: 46; Paine: 50ff.

2. When Empire beckoned: the West, and the expedition of Lewis and Clark.

Channing: 86-95; Hosmer: 127-37; Johnson: *Century*, 152-3, 184, 161-78 (Burr); Nicolay: "Our Nation in the Building," in *Cen. M.*, 91: 456-60, 625-33; Semple: 100, 111-13, 182-3, 201-4, 230; Walker: 205-10; such Lewis and Clark diaries as are available.

3. When constitutional grants did not cover obvious self-interest—the Louisiana Purchase.

Channing: 47-72; Gilman: 74-91; Hart: "Foundations of American Foreign Policy," 25; Hosmer: 117-27; Johnson: 142-59; Latané: "America as a World Power," 133-7; Nicolay, cited above: 206-7, 450-65; Ogg: "Opening of the Mississippi," 405-538; Page, R. W.: "The British-American Adventures Towards Liberty," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 35: 55-7; Semple: 92, 113; Thwaites: "France in America," 280-95; Walker: 177-87.

4. When self-imposed limitations interfered with self-realization; the question of manufactures and self-support.

Hunt: 57-74; McLaughlin: 24-9; Sumner: "Andrew Jackson": 72-9; Walker: 257-62.

### THE FIRST AMERICAN NATIONALISM

#### (Twelfth, Thirteenth and Fourteenth Weeks)

Why the people of the United States at last felt themselves to be a nation. (Discuss the question of whether the people had felt this before the close of the War of 1812; what is a nation?)

Babcock: 231-42; also in "Social and Economic Forces": 174ff; Johnson: 222-4.

How this new feeling showed itself:

1. In the filling up of the West.

Babcock: 243-58; Forman: 278-85; Hosmer: 153-60; Johnson: 244-65; McLaughlin: 30-33; Nicolay, in *Century M.*, 92: 246-55; Paxson: "The Last American Frontier," 14-32; Turner, in "Economic and Social Forces": 246-313; "Rise of the New West": ; Wilson: 1-6.

2. In territorial acquisitions from Spain.

Burgess: 19-38; Forman: 235-9; Nicolay, cited above; Sumner: "Jackson," 49-72; Rhodes: "History of the U. S.," I: 78-82.

3. In a truly American literature.

Babcock, in "Social and Economic Forces": 186-8; Wilson: 6-9; Johnson: *Century*, 222-9; use standard histories of American literature.

4. In legislation and court decisions aimed to meet distinctly American needs.

Babcock, in "Social and Economic Forces":

182-3, and in "Rise of American Nationality": 290-308; Burgess: 108-23; Forman: 290-300; Hunt: 21-33; Johnson: *Century*, 266-8; Nicolay: *Century M.*, 92:255ff; Turner: 226-35; Wilson: 13-16.

5. In the Monroe Doctrine, and an early type of Pan-Americanism.

Burgess: 122-30; Gilman: 156-82; Hart: "Foundations," 30-35; "Formation": 240-4; Johnson: 291-7; Morse: "John Quincy Adams," 132-49; Page, cited above: 57-63; Turner: "Rise of the New West," 199-223; Wilson: 15-6.

6. In the diplomacy of Adams and Gallatin.

Babcock: 168-86; Johnson: 320-3; Morse: "J. Q. Adams," 69-101; Schurz: 102-25; Stevens: 312-67; Turner: 286-98.

7. In Clay's American System.

Burgess: 112-5; Hart: "Formation," 228-31, 248-9; Johnson: 289-90; Lodge: 154-72; McLaughlin: 52ff; Ogg: "Daniel Webster," 163-86; Schurz: "Clay," I: 211-24, 357-67; Turner: 236-40.

8. In Jacksonian Democracy.

Dodd: 1-19; Forman: 306-10; Johnson: "Readings," 353-63; Johnson: 297-317; McLaughlin: 44-62; Nicolay, cited above; Wilson: 17-23.

## SECTIONALISM

(Fifteenth, Sixteenth and Seventeenth Weeks)

The nation grew bigger in territory than it was in spirit, and so split into sections, each section engrossed in its own absorbing problems. Sectionalism, then, is one phase of the all-touching land question. Sectional alignments: Slave and free; Eastern and Western; National and local allegiance.

1. The slavery sectionalism.

History of slavery in America.

Slavery a vested interest.

Slavery and expansion—inseparable policies. Why?

Why the North became free soil.

Economics of slave and free labor systems; effect on production.

Brown: 3-50; Hosmer: 161-8; Johnson: 318-30; McLaughlin: 35-43, 63-81; Paxson: "Civil War," 1-24; Rhodes: I: 104-10, 130-6, 119-30; Schurz, II: 69-94; Turner, in "Social and Economic Forces": 189-206, 22p-46; "Rise of the New West": 1-27, 45-66; Von Holst: 62-84.

2. The East-and-West sectionalism.

The meaning of the Frontier.

Clash of interests between East and West. Jacksonian Democracy.

Dodd: "Expansion and Conflict," Chapters 2, 3; Sparks: 238-48; Turner: "New West," 67-135; in "Social and Economic Forces": 207, 24; Wilson: 41-3.

3. The Big-unit and Small-unit sectionalism.

The original alignment—Large-state and Small-state.

How slavery affected the issue.

How the tariff affected it.

How the national bank affected it.

Nullification.

The interpretation of the Constitution; Webster vs. Calhoun.

Burgess: 278-88, 166-241; Dodd: 508-113; Hunt: 94-107; Johnson: "Readings," 317-22, 329-34, 335-7; Lodge: 172-204; Ogg: "Webster," 221-55; Sumner: "Jackson," 207-20; Turner: "New West," 299-332; Wilson: 69-93.

The consolidation of sections.

Before the Civil War.

a. In the South, with core of slavery interest.

b. In the North, with core of business interest.

After the Civil War.

c. In the West, with core of agrarian interest.

List the great events that indicate sectional feeling and interest, and show their results. Sectional characteristics are shown by literature, customs and legislative votes on critical questions.

General: Brown: "The Lower South," 82-114; Dodd: "Cotton Kingdom," the whole book is excellent as a picture of the ante-bellum South; "Expansion and Conflict": 184, 231-67.

For A: Brown: 50-77; Dodd: "Expansion and Conflict," 114-46; Hart, in "Social and Economic Forces": 329-46; Rhodes: "U. S.," I: 189-98; Smith, T. C., in "Social and Economic Forces": 369-88; "Parties and Slavery": 286-304, 1-14.

For B: Dodd: 161-63; Rhodes: I: 209-13, 498-506; II: 13-8.

For C: Dodd: 185-207; Dunning, in "Social and Economic Forces," 346-69; Garrison: 1-21.

## ELECTIVE

(Eighteenth Week)

This week will probably be used for review and examination. Otherwise, special topics for individual work should be assigned. Or, if practicable, the week's work may be on state history, following topics closely correlated with national history.

## CIVIL WAR—DIRECT CAUSES AND INFLUENCES

(Nineteenth Week)

Expansion—Oregon, the Mexican War and the Southwest. Efforts for Cuba and their significance. Show the relation between the system of production in the cotton states and the need for expansion; but be careful not to give the impression that it was the southern states only that wished expansion.

Brown: 77-82; Bryan: 1-183 (good for a special report; the same applies to several of the longer references given in these pages); Burgess: 289-364; Chittenden, H. M.: "Manifest Destiny in America," in *Atl. M.*, 117: 49-54; Dodd: "The Fight for the Northwest," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 16: 774-88; "Expansion and Conflict," 147-60; "Jefferson Davis": 190-50; Forman: 344-68; Garrison: 228-53, campaigns; 157-73, Oregon; Hart: "Foundations," 37-8, 44-7, 68-74; Harvey, C. M.: "On the Road to Oregon," in *Atl. M.*, 105: 628-39; "Our Lost Opportunities on the Pacific," in *N. Amer.*, 193: 388-402; Johnson: *Century*, 160-98; McLaughlin: 82-123, 239-40; McMaster, VII: Chaps. 81, 83, 85; Ogg: "Webster," 317-75; Parkman, Fr.: "The Oregon Trail"; Paxson: 30-70, 70-85, 104-73; Schurz, II: Chap. 25; Smith: 75-93; Sparks: 300-50.

Compromise of 1850.

Bassett: 464-60; Dodd: "Expansion," 174-83; "Jefferson Davis": 113-21; Forman: 390-7; Garrison: 314-332; MacDonald: "Documents," 80-83; Rhodes, I: Chap. 2 and 189-98; Schurz, II: 315-72; Smith: "Parties and Slavery," 14-42.

Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

Burgess: 407-48, 460-74, 380-406 (advanced and technical); Hosmer: 168-78, 181-2; MacDonald: 174-207; "Documents": 85, 88; Rhodes, I: Chap. 5; Smith: 94-108; Sparks: 350-63; Wilson: 181-7, 199-200.

Dred Scott Decision.

Burgess: 449-59; Johnson: "Readings," 436-46; Hosmer: 178-80; MacDonald: "Documents," 91; "From Jefferson to Lincoln": 219-29; Rhodes, II: 242-77; Smith: 190-208; Wilson: 175-8, 197-9.

The Republican Party; elements and aims, 1854-60.

Dodd: "Expansion," 241-7, 249-50, 260-6; "Jefferson Davis": 163-91; Forman: 392-9, 401-7; Johnson: "Readings," 459-62; MacDonald: 208-28, 29-39, 243-50; Rhodes, I: 206-8, 243-78; II: Chaps. 7, 8, 10, 11; Smith: Chaps. 2, 4, 8, 10, 12; Wilson: 190-3, 204-10.

Grievances of the South.

Dodd: "Jefferson Davis," Chap. 10, 151-73; "Expansion": 268-9; Johnson: "Readings," 459-62; Rhodes, II: 344-6; Smith: 286-304, 736-48; Sumner: "Jackson," 206-23.

Secession.

Brown: 113-51; Chadwick: Chaps. 1, 3, 4, 9; Dodd: "Expansion," 131-8; Dodd: "Jefferson Davis," 189-225; Forman: 423-36; Hunt: 94-107; Johnson:

"Readings," 455-62; Rhodes, III: 115-25, 192-207; Wilson: 210-3, 239-44.

### III. THE TEST OF UNION

#### General References

- Beard, C. A.: "Contemporary American History." Macmillan, 1914.  
 Bradford, G.: "Union Portraits." In *Atl. M.*, 1915-16. Houghton Mifflin, 1916.  
 Brookmire Economic Service, N. Y.: "Economic Trends of War and Reconstruction."  
 Bruce, P. A.: "The Rise of the New South." Barrie, 1905. H. of N. A.  
 Burgess, J. W.: "Reconstruction and the Constitution, 1866-77." *Scribner's*, 1902.  
 Chapin, S. J.: "The Cotton Industry and Trade." London, 1905.  
 Dewey, D. P.: "National Problems, 1885-97." *Harper's*, 1907. A. N. S.  
 Dodd, W. E.: "Jefferson Davis." Jacobs, 1907. A. C. S.  
 Dunning, W. A.: "Reconstruction, Political and Economic, 1865-77." *Harper's*, 1907. A. N. S.  
 ———, "Essays on the Civil War and Reconstruction and Related Topics." Inscribed to W. A. Dunning. Macmillan, 1898.  
 Fish, C. R.: "Development of American Nationality." Amer. Book Co., 1914.  
 Hamilton, P. J.: "Reconstruction Period." Barrie, 1905. H. of N. A.  
 Hart, A. B.: "Slavery and Abolition, 1831-41." *Harper's*, 1907.  
 Herbert, H. A., et al.: "Why the Solid South?" Woodard, Baltimore, 1890.  
 Hosmer, J. K.: "The Appeal to Arms, 1861-63." *Harper's*, 1907.  
 ———, "The Outcomes of the Civil War, 1863-65." *Harper's*, 1907.  
 MacDonald, Wm.: "Select Statutes of U. S. History, 1860-98." Macmillan, 1916.  
 Morse, J. T., Jr.: "Abraham Lincoln." 2 vols. Houghton Mifflin, 1893.  
 Nicolay and Hay: "Abraham Lincoln" (one volume, abridged). *Century*, 1902.  
 Paxson, F. L.: "The New Nation." Houghton Mifflin, 1915. R. S.  
 ———, "The Civil War." Holt.  
 Rogers, J. M.: "The Development of the North Since the Civil War." Barrie, 1906. H. of N. A.  
 Sparks: "National Development, 1877-85." *Harper's*, 1907. A. N. S.  
 Tarbell, Ida: "Life of Lincoln." 4 vols. Lincoln Hist. Society, 1902.  
 Thompson, H.: "The New South." Yale Press, 1919. C. of A.

### THE CIVIL WAR—COURSE AND LEADERS

(Twentieth and Twenty-first Weeks)

Very little military history need be taught, but the objects of offensive and defensive should be made clear, and the outlines of the consequent campaign plans. Probably the best way is to have the students find out the objectives of the Federal forces, and for the teacher then to draw on a blackboard outline map the campaign plans and movements resulting, explaining as the chalk-talk proceeds. The complicated movements will thus be rationalized and simplified. Forman: 464, gives a diagram of the campaigns.

Dodd: 280-387; Dodge, T. A.: "A Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War," for maps and explanations; for teacher's use. Forman: 437-64; Hosmer: "Mississippi Valley," 183-203; "Appeal to Arms": Chaps. 4-13, 15-19; "Outcomes," Chaps. 2, 3, 5-7, 10-12, 17; Morgan, James Morris: "The Recollections of a Rebel Reefer," in *Atl. M.*, 119: 1-11, 153-62; Wilson, 218ff.

The great leaders.

Federal: Bradford: "Union Portraits"; Morse, Tarbell and others, "Lives of Lincoln"; Paxson: "The Civil War," 38-53, 63-4, 68-71; Strunsky, Rose:

"Abraham Lincoln's Social Ideals," in *Cen. M.*, 87: 588-92. Confederate: Dodd: "Jefferson Davis," Chaps. 13-21; "Expansion": 275-8; Rhodes, III: 271-9; Wilson: 117-23; "Mosky, the Guerilla," in *Nation*, 102: 611-12; standard biographies.

Factors in the result.

Finances: Brown: 165-81; Collins, F. A.: "Civil War Prices," in *Outlook*, 119: 401; Fite: 155-82; Paxson: "Civil War," 193-203; Rhodes, III: 464, 559-78, IV: 237-43, 427-509, V: 188.

Sanitary measures and nursing: Livermore, Mary A.: "My Story of the War"; Putnam, G. H.: "Prisoners of War," in *Outlook*, 97: 695-704; Tarbell, Ida: "The American Woman, etc.," in *American Magazine*, 69: 801-14; Wilson: 248-64.

The Press: Forman: 419-21; Randall, J. G.: "The Newspaper During the Civil War," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 23: 303-23.

The Navy: Chadwick, F. E.: "The Federal Navy and the South," *Review of Reviews*, 43: 438-40; Morgan, J. M.: *Atl. M.*, 119: 500-8; Paxson, "Civil War," 72-6.

Resources of North and South: Benton, E. J.: "Neutral Rights During the Civil War," *Nation*, 190: 652-3; Brown: 159-65; Brace, G. A.: "Enlistment and Conscription in the Civil War," in *Outl.*, 111: 812-3; Fish, C. R.: "Conscription in the Civil War," *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 21: 100-3; Fite: 24-105; Paxson: "Civil War," 54-61; Wilson: 244-7; "How America Became a Nation in Arms," in *Cen. M.*, 78: 507-40; "The European Civil War," in *Ind.*, 89: 69.

Loyalty and disloyalty in North and South. The Copperhead movement and the Republic of Jones illustrate the lack of complete unity in ideas in both regions: Abel, A. H.: "The Indians in the Civil War," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 15: 281-96; Brown: 181-7; Dunning, W. A.: "Disloyalty in Two Wars," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 24: 625-9; Forman: 465-7, 473-5; Paxson, cit.: 190-3.

Invention: The war and the sewing machine, percussion cartridges, bombs, balloons and submarines are a few of the subjects that should interest students of a scientific turn of mind: Fite, cit.: 105-55, 183-913; Forman: 414-7, 470-3.

What the war settled:

1. The Union is indestructible.
2. Slavery is ended; free labor is the rule in America. Paxson: 232-48; Strunsky, Rose: "Needed: A New Emancipation Program," in *New Republic*, 15: 341-2.

### RECONSTRUCTING THE NATION

(Twenty-second Week)

Motivate the week's work by comparison with the tasks of reconstruction after the Great War. Note that there were three great tasks after the Civil War:

1. Re-establishing broken political unity.
2. Recovery from the losses of war.
3. Revamping the economic life of a section which had been using an ancient and outworn labor system.

S. W. McCall: "Washington During Reconstruction," *Atl. M.*, 87: 818-19; Dunning: "Reconstruction, Political and Economic," 2-17; Intro. to Hamilton, cit.: 1-22.

Political Reconstruction.

1. Theories and methods of the controlling powers.
  - a. Presidential theories rejected by Congress. Dunning: 35-50; Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 1-19; Herbert, H. A.: "The Abolition Crusade and Its Consequences," 208-218; Wilson, Woodrow: "Reconstruction of the Southern States," in *Atl. M.*, 87: 3-5; Brown, W. G.: "The Tenth Decade," etc., in *Atl. M.*, 359-60, 363-70; Schouler: VII: 25-43.
  - b. Congressional theories influencing practice. Dunning: 50-70; Haworth, cited above: 21-40; Herbert, H. A., cited above: 218-238.

## c. Actual legislative basis.

McCall, S. W.: "Washington During Reconstruction," in *Atl. M.*, 87: 821-6; Herbert, H. A.: "The Conditions of the Reconstruction Problem," in *Atl. M.*, 87: 152-3; Wilson, Woodrow: "The Reconstruction of the Southern States," in *Atl. M.*, 87: 5-10; Pendleton: "A. H. Stephens," 351-358; Schouler: VII, 80-89, 89-90, 101-102, 171-173 (Domination of Congress); Wilson: 260-1, 265-70; Dunning: 252-66 (gives Supreme Court interpretations).

## 2. The application and result of reconstruction legislation in the South.

Dunning: "Rec. Pol. and Ec.," 109-123, 202-219; Herbert, H. A.: "The Abolition Crusade and Its Consequences"; Wilson: "The Reconstruction of the Southern States," *Atl. M.*, 87: 10-11.

## 3. The readmission to participation in government.

## a. Readmission of States.

Wilson: "Reconstruction of the Southern States," *Atl. M.*, 87: 10; Schouler: VII: 126-7, 169-72; Herbert: "The Conditions of the Reconstruction Problem," *Atl. M.*, 87: 154-6; Bryce: "Am. Com.," 497-8.

## b. The election of 1872.

Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 64-67; Schouler: VII: 210-17; Wilson: "Division and Reunion," 275-77.

## c. The election of 1876.

Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 71-80; Schouler: VII: 285-97, 301-306, 309-346; Wilson: "Division and Reunion," 283-86; Dunning: "Rec. Pol. and Ec.," 294-341, map 311; Ewing, cit.: 1-3, 9-27, 85-99, 176-94 (specialized, for teacher); Watterson, Henry: "The Hayes-Tilden Contest for the Presidency," *Century*, 86: 3-20, suppl. 285-87; Edmonds, Geo. F.: "Another View of the Hayes-Tilden Contest," *Century*, 86: 192-203; Forman: 502-3; Beard: "Cent. Am. Hist.," 1-3; Rogers: 107-30; Sparks: 84-136; Rhodes: VII, 206-91.

## d. Re-establishment of civil government.

Schouler: VII: 352-7; Wilson: "Division and Reunion," 286; Dunning: "Rec. Pol. and Ec.," 266-80; —, "The Undoing of Reconstruction," *Atl. M.*, 88: 437-46; Phelps, A.: "New Orleans and Reconstruction," *Atl. M.*, 88: 126-8 (city factions); Forman: 505-6; Beard: "Cont. Am. Hist.," 3-4; Rogers: 31-40; Haworth: "Rec. and Union," 80-103.

## The recovery from the loss of war.

## 1. Economic.

## a. Plantation life and production.

Herbert, H. A.: "The Conditions of the Reconstruction Problem," *Atl. M.*, 87: 145-6; Brown, W. G.: "The Tenth Decade," etc., *Atl. M.*, 763-6; Bogart: "Economic History of the U. S.," 266-76; Thompson, H., cit.: 29-99; Dunning, in "Social and Economic Forces in American Life," *Ch. XXIV*; Thompson: "The New South," 1-31.

## b. Manufacturing and commerce.

Bogart: "Ec. Hist. of the U. S.," 269-70; Thompson, cit.: 299-307; Schouler: VII: 260-2; Dunning: "Rec. Pol. and Ec.," 142-4; Bruce, cit: *Chs. X-XVI*, 145-231, very detailed, for teachers; Chapman, S. J.: "The Cotton Industry and Trade," 138-51; —, "The Aftermath of Reconstruction," *Century*, 85: 843-53; Fite: "Soc. and Ind. Cond.," *Chs. I-VI*; Bogart: *Chs. XX, XXII-III, XXV, XXX*; Rhodes: "Railroad Riots," *Scribner's*, 50: 86.

## c. Financial.

Rhodes: VI, 158-67, 215-33, 36-280; Dunning: "Rec.," 27, 129, 131-3, 136-41, 193-200, 200-225; Bogart: 338-43.

## 2. Social.

## a. In population.

Dunning: "Reconstruction, Pol. and Ec.," map. 142-3; —, "The Negro in America," *Lit. Digest*, 63: 40ff; Bruce, cit.: *Ch. XVI*: 231-249, southern cities; *Ch. I*: 3-16, population.

## b. In good-will and normal interest in such fields as religion, education, commerce, etc.

Wilson: "The Reconstruction of the Southern States," *Atl. M.*, 87: 13-15; Boyd, W. K.: Some phases of educational history in the South since 1865: "Negro," 280-87; "Higher," 273-80; "Public Schools," 260-73, in *Studies in Southern History and Politics*; Hamilton, P. J.: cit: *Ch. XVII*, 453-83 (for teachers); —, "A Shameful Law: Florida and Negro Education," *Independent*, 76: 192; —, "Social Effects of Emancipation," *Survey*, 29: 570-73; Thompson, cit.: 6: 307-312; Bruce, cit.: *Ch. XXX*: 421-35.

## Transition from slave to free labor system of production.

## 1. The resourceless freedman.

DuBois, W. E. B.: "The Freedman's Bureau," *Atl. M.*, 87: 354-65; Herbert, H. A.: "The Conditions of the Reconstruction Problem," *Atl. M.*, 87: 148-50ff; Brown, W. G.: "The Tenth Decade," etc., *Atl. M.*, 96: 766-70; Hamilton, J. G. deR.: "Southern Legislation in Respect to Freedmen," in *Studies in Southern History and Politics*, 137-158 (rather advanced).

## 2. Southern attempts at legal control of the negro and northern interference.

Herbert: "Conditions of the Southern Reconstruction Problem," *Atl. M.*, 87: 154-7; Chamberlain, D. H.: "Reconstruction in S. C.," *Atl. M.*, 87: 476-79; Brown, W. G.: "The Tenth Decade," etc., *Atl. M.*, 96: 770-75; Dunning: "The Undoing of Reconstruction," *Atl. M.*, 88: 446-9; Pendleton, L.: "A. H. Stephens," 359-73; Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 40-46; Schouler: VII: 101-107, 251-60; Hamilton, cit.: XI: 319-39 (somewhat advanced); —, "End of the Grandfather Clause," *Lit. Dig.*, 51: 5; —, "The Hunt for a New Grandfather," *Lit. Dig.*, 51: 200; —, "The Finish of the Civil Rights Act," *Lit. Dig.*, 47: 8; DuBois, W. E. B.: "Reconstruction and Its Benefits," *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 15: 781-99 (negro accomplishment); Rhodes: VI, 200-4, 244-46, 284-334, 390-1; VII, 74-174; Bryce: "Am. Commonwealth," 498-500.

## 3. The Ku Klux era.

Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 40-55; Brown, W. G.: "The Ku Klux Movement," *Atl. M.*, 87: 634-44; Page, Thos. N.: "The Southern People During Reconstruction," *Atl. M.*, 88: 299-302; Lester, J. C., and Wilson, D. L.: "The Ku Klux Klan," *Century*, VI: 398-416; Schouler: VII: 175-9; Burton, A. C.: "The Ku Klux Klan," pamphlet; Forman: 499-506; Brown, cit.: "The Lower South," etc., 191-225; Bryce: "Am. Com.," 500-2.

## 4. Giving the negro a start in industry—the small farm system.

Bogart: "Ec. Hist. of the U. S.," 273-74; Thompson, cit.: "Holland," cit. 294-7; —, "The New Point of View in the South," *Indep.*, 71: 79-83; —, "The Negro's Economic progress," *Lit. Dig.*, 46: 215.

## 5. Whites and negroes in production.

Herbert: "The Abolition Crusade and Its Consequences," 229-44; Wilson, C. D.: "Negroes who Owned Slaves," *Pop. Sci.*, 81: 483-94; Keasbey, L. M.: "The Agrarian Unrest in the South," *New Republic*, 4: 146-8; —, "The Aftermath of Reconstruction," *Century*, 88: 848-9.

## 6. The advantages of free labor.

Bogart: "Ec. Hist. of the U. S.," 254-6, 259; Thompson, cit.: 303-307; "The New South": 106-29; Chapman, S. J.: "The Cotton Industry and Trade," 148-9; Scherer: "Cotton as a World Power," 325-50.

## THE NEW SOUTH

(Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth Weeks) \*

Agricultural reconstruction and industrial enlargement and variation give to the South new economic conditions.

Beard: 46-9; Bogart: 272-6, 296-302, 382-4, 390-1; Bryce: 507-9; Edmonds, R. H.: "The South's Amazing Progress," in *Review of Reviews*, 30:177; Grady, H. W.: "New South. Cotton and Its Kingdom," *Harper's M.*, 63:719; Hibbard, B. H.: "Tenancy in the Southern States," in *Carver's Readings*; Keasbey, I. M.: "The Agrarian Unrest in the South," in *New Republic*, 4:146-8; Sparks: 33ff; Thompson: 31-60, 86-106; Trent: "Dominant Forces," etc., in *Atl. M.*, 89:42ff.

The race question.

Beard: 14-6; Brown: 247-71; Bryce: 504-7, 512-40; Thompson: 129-57; in *Economic and Social Forces*, 307-12.

Education and democracy in the South.

Bryce: 509-11; Dowley, T. R.: "Southern Mountaineers," in *Wld's Wk.*, 19:12, 704; Frost, W. G.: "Our Contemporary Ancestors," in *Atl. M.*, 83:311ff; Thompson: 157-90; Trent, W. P.: "Tendencies of Higher Life," etc., in *Atl. M.*, 89:766; Douglass, Paul H.: "Christian Reconstruction in the South."

## THE NEW NORTH

(Twenty-fifth and Twenty-sixth Weeks) \*

Expansion after the war—the West, and the Transcontinental Railroads.

Beard: 27-32; Bogart: Ch. XXII; Brown: "The Tenth Decade," *Atl. M.*, 96:31; Dewey: 17-9, 91-111; Forman: 490-3, 510-1; Hosmer: "Miss. Valley," 213-9; Paxson: "Last Frontier," 192-224, Chs. XI-XIII, XIX; *New Nation*: 142-9, 157-60, 12-4; Rogers: 61-75, 181-97; Semple: 367-96; Sparks: "National Development," 52-67.

The land and its problems: (a) Land grants and the passing of free land. The problems of a frontier. (b) "The agrarian crusade" to 1896.

a. Beard: 41-6, 67-73; Bogart: 243-9; Buck: "Independent Parties in the Western States," in *Essays Dedicated to F. J. Turner*, 137-65; Dewey: 3-17; Dunning: "Reconstruction," 235-41, 258-60, 294-5; Forman: 493-6, 515-6, 518; Paxson: 149-57, diagram on 152, 177-89; Ross: "Agrarian Revolution," etc., in *North Amer. Rev.*, 190:376ff; Sparks: 9.

b. Buck, S. J.: "The Agrarian Crusade"; Harvey, C. M.: "The Trail of the Argonauts," in *Atl. M.*, 108:115ff; Meade, E. S.: "The Story of Gold"; Paxson: "Last Frontier," Chs. IX, X; Rhodes: VII:37-73; Sparks: 21-8, 251-64, 310-1; Rogers: 211-3.

The effect of invention and industrial development.

Beard: 32-41; Bogart: Chs. XX, XXII, XXIII, XXV, XXX; Dewey: 3-19; Fite: Chs. I-VI; Forman: 493-6, 511-5; Paxson: "New Nation," 92-197, 14-8, 20-6; Rogers: 365-86, 387-401; Sparks: 20-52.

Industrial organization.

Bogart: Chs. 26-29; Beard: 112-4; Forman: 493-9, 518-9; Ogg: "National Progress," 76-95; Rogers: 247-50; Sparks: 68-83; Wilson: 304-9.

Labor organization.

Beard, Mary: "A Short History of the American Labor Movement," 80-102; "Contemporary American History," 114-5, 141-2, 143-7; Dewey: 40-56, Ch. XVIII; Forman: 494-5, 519-21; Coman: "Industrial History," 347; Bogart: Chs. XXVI-XXIX; Latane: 308-13; Paxson: 121-4; Rogers: 151-64; Ford: "The Cleveland Era," 94-220.

\* Two weeks are given to the New South and two to the New North in this outline. It is suggested that the whole of the time allotted be used for one of these topics, to be chosen with regard to the location of the school, and that a week of state or local history be substituted for one of the weeks allowed in the other division.

## ELECTIVE

(Twenty-seventh Week)

State history.

Special topics on the history of invention, culture, literature, science or art, as developed in America in the period under consideration. Students should be allowed great liberty in following their interests in this work. Simple source problems, preferably in local history, worked out individually.

## IV. THE GREATER UNITED STATES

## GENERAL REFERENCES

- Beard, Mary: "Short History of the American Labor Movement." Harcourt, Brace and Howe, 1920.  
 Buck, S. J.: "The Agrarian Crusade." Yale Press, 1920. C. of A.  
 Carlton, F. T.: "Organized Labor in American History." Appleton, 1920.  
 Coolidge, A. C.: "The United States as a World Power." Macmillan, 1918.  
 Fairchild, H. P.: "Immigration." Macmillan, 1914.  
 Ford, H. J.: "The Cleveland Era." Yale Press, 1919. C. of A.  
 Gregory, M. H.: "Checking the Waste." Bobbs Merrill, 1911.  
 Hough, Emerson: "The Passing of the Frontier." Yale Press, 1919. C. of A.  
 King, C. L.: "Lower Living Costs in Cities." Appleton, 1915.  
 Ogg, F. A.: "National Progress, 1907-1917." *Harper's*, 1918. A. N. S.  
 Ogg and Beard: "National Governments and the World War." Macmillan, 1919.  
 Pinchot, Gifford: "The Fight for Conservation." Doubleday Page, 1910.  
 Powers, H. H.: "America Among the Nations." Macmillan, 1918.  
 Riis, Jacob: "The Making of an American." Macmillan, 1904.  
 Van Hise, C. R.: "Concentration and Control." Macmillan, 1914.  
 ———, "Conservation of Our Natural Resources." Macmillan, 1910.

THE UNITED STATES EMERGES FROM ITS PERIOD OF A TYPICAL ISOLATION, AND ENTERS A PERIOD IN WHICH ITS PROBLEMS ARE SIMILAR TO THOSE OF THE REST OF THE WORLD

(Twenty-eighth, Twenty-ninth and Thirtieth Weeks)

The disappearance of practically free land. The ratio of wealth to population becomes more nearly the world ratio. Effect on prices. Effect on land policy, rentals, etc. The students should learn that many things popularly attributed to the wickedness of capital or to political policy are really caused by this fundamental change in the conditions of American economic life.

Bigelow, P.: "Bonanza Farms," in *Atl. M.*, 45:33ff; Bogart: Chs. XX, XXI, XXIII; Edgar: "Story of a Grain of Wheat," Chs. VIII, X; Fite: "Social and Industrial Conditions," Ch. I; Hough, select; also "Settlement of the West"; Miles, N. A.: "Rounding Up the Red Man," in *Cosmopolitan*, 51:105ff; Paxson: "Last Frontier," 283-371, 372-86; "New Nation": 142-61; Ross, E. A.: "Social Control," in *Century M.*, 63:36; Smalley, E. V.: "Isolation," in *Atl. M.*, 72:378; Sparks: 265-81.

The struggle of the transition to a world money standard. "Free Silver," the gold standard and the campaign of 1896.

Beard: "Contemporary American History," 117-24; Buck: "Agrarian Crusade," 76-98, 154-93; Dewey: 76-90, 220-37, 253-75, 311-28; Ford: 171-94; Forman: 506-7, 543-5; Latane: 120-8; Paxson: 208-42; Rogers: 199-211; Wilson: 314-20.

The conservation policy vs. large-scale exploitation of natural resources.

Forman: 542, 578-9; Gregory: "Checking the

Waste"; Ogg: "National Progress," 96-115; Pinchot: "The Fight for Conservation"; Rinehart, R. E.: "Seizing the Desert's Last Stronghold," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 15:10, 147; Van Hise: "Conservation of Our Natural Resources"; White, S. E.: "The Fight for the Forests," in *Am. M.*, 14:252.

### SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC UNREST

(Thirty-first Week)

The break-up of the solidarity of American society, which to about 1870 had been composed almost entirely of Northwest Europeans and their descendants. The New Immigration and its problems.

Bogart: 420-2; Bryce: 469-90; Fairchild: "Immigration"; Kellor, F. A.: "Lo, the Poor Immigrant," in *Atl. M.*, 117:59-65; Ogg: "National Progress," 116-30; Paxson: 120-1; Ripley, W. Z.: "Races in the United States," in *Atl. M.*, 102:745ff; Rogers: 251-64; Sparks: 229-50; Steiner, J. H.: "On the Trail of the Immigrant"; Warne: "The Immigrant Invasion"; Wilson: 298-300; current magazines and newspapers, statistics from yearbooks.

### SOCIAL CONTROL OF BUSINESS

(Thirty-second Week)

Small capitalism evolves into large capitalism, bringing new and important problems. The Sherman Law is the result of a long experimental effort socially to control this large capitalism. The early and later interpretations show the difficulty of controlling economic factors by law; they are also interesting as illustrating the new type of regulation of private business in the interests of the public weal.

Beard, Mary: 111-2; Beard: "Contemporary American History," 132-7, 228-46, 331-6; Bogart: Ch. XXVII; Buck: "Agrarian Crusade," 43-59; Dewey: 188-202; Forman: 556-60, 533-7, 583-4; Higginson, H. L.: "Justice to the Corporations," in *Atl. M.*, 101:9; Latane: Ch. XVIII; Ogg: "National Progress," 59-75; Paxson: 293-331; Rogers: 353-7; Van Hise: "Concentration and Control."

### THE EMERGENCE OF CLASSES AND OF CLASS STRUGGLE

(Thirty-third Week)

Political sectionalism gives place to political class interest, with such issues as the tariff, railroads, corporations, class alignment in city politics, etc. The modern spoils system.

Carlton: 199-225; Dewey: 56-75, 76-90, 174-87, 276-87; Ford: 59-85; Forman: 546-7; Hart: "Actual Government," Ch. XXI; Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 103-114, 195-283; McCall, S. W.: "The Payne Tariff Law," in *Atl. M.*, 104:562; Ogg: "National Progress," 19-57; Paxson: 244-52; Rhodes, J. F.: "National Republican Conventions," in *Scribner's M.*, 50:297; Rhodes: VI:39 and VII:1-29, 64-73, 175-206; Rlis: Chs. III, X, XIX; Rogers: 235-42; Sparks: 154-64, 182-201, 282-326; Taussig, F. W.: "Tariff History," in *Atl. M.*, 101:334, 106:721; Wilson: 309-14, 320-25.

### FOREIGN RELATIONS

(Thirty-fourth Week)

The United States had cherished a traditional isolation to the end of the nineteenth century, when closer relationships with foreign powers were forced upon it, largely through the growth of production and commerce in the country itself and as an almost accidental result of the Spanish War.

#### 1. The Panama Canal.

Beard: "Contemporary American History," 275-9; Chittenden: "Manifest Destiny in America," in *Atl. M.*, 117:54-9; Coolidge: 266-80; Dewey: 117-26; Paxson: 316-7; Rogers: 361-4; Roosevelt, T.: "How We Acquired the Panama Canal," in *Outl.*, 99:314; Sparks: 202-28.

#### 2. The new Pan-Americanism and the Monroe Doctrine (Venezuela affair, etc.).

Coolidge: 103-20; Dewey: 297-315; Forman: 541-2; Hart: "Foundations of American Foreign Policy," 47-8, 230-40; Latane: 242-84; Ogg: "National Progress," 46-83; Olney, Richard: "International Isolation," in *Atl. M.*, 81:577; Page, R. W.: "British-American Adventures," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 35:60-5, November, 1917; Paxson: "New Nation," 255-6; Rhodes, J. F.: "Cleveland's Administrations," in *Scribner's*, 50:607-12; Thayer, W. R.: "John Hay's Policy of Anglo-Saxonism," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 35:33-41, November, 1917; Wilson: 325-7, 281-6, 351-3, 318-20.

#### 3. The Spanish War and resultant responsibilities.

Beard: "Contemporary American History," 203-223; Bryce: 576-86; Forman: 547-53; Hart: "Foundations of American Foreign Policy," Chs. V, VI; Haworth: "Reconstruction and Union," 175-94; Johnson: *Century*, 264-86; Latane: 28-99, 174-91, 152-74, 138-52; Middleton, James: "The Mailed Fist in American History," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 32:145, 52; Paxson: "New Nation," 257-75, 279-85; Rogers: 265-95; Wilson: 328-44.

#### 4. On Alaska.

Johnson: *Century*, 198-220; Latane: 192-203; Meikle: "American Masters of the Pacific," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 10:64-7.

#### 5. The Great War—American participation. The outline given in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

gives excellent help for teaching this recent and therefore difficult period.

Beard, Mary: 150-70 (labor and the war); Carlton: 282-306; Forman: 596-600; Ogg: "National Progress," 325-99; Ogg and Beard: 145-64, 556-8.

#### 6. The League of Nations. Students should understand three things, if possible: What the League is, how constituted and ordered; the factions for and against it in the world at large; and why the United States has not (1920) entered.

Baldwin: E. F.: "Society of Nations in the Light of the Present Situation," in *Outl.*, 122:435-6, July 16, 1919; Brailsford, H. W.: "The United States and the League of Peace," in *Atl. M.*, 119:433-42; Davis, H.: "On the Outside Looking In," in *Ind.*, 101:394; Fosdick, R. B.: "The League of Nations Is Alive," in *Atl. M.*, 125:845-54; Holt, H.: "Organizing the League of Nations," in *Ind.*, 97:253; "Defeat the Reservations," *Ind.*, 99:441ff; Irwin, W.: "Our Big Chance, etc.," *Ind.*, 100:97ff, 117ff, November 15 and 29, 1919; Jacks, L. P.: "The International Mind," in *Atl. M.*, 125:299-311; Latane: "The League of Nations and the Monroe Doctrine," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 37:44ff; Ogg and Beard: 561-70; Stoddard, L.: "Labor in World Politics," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 39:195ff; "As Others See Us," etc., in *Wld's. Wk.*, 39:335ff; Stockbridge, F. P.: "Our Navy and a League of Nations," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 37:425-37; Strunsky, S.: "The President's Home-Coming," in *Atl. M.*, 124:267-75; Wallace, J.: "The Senate and the League of Nations," in *Outl.*, 124:723; —, "Constitution of the League: What It Is and What It Is Not," in *Wld's. Wk.*, 37:605-10; —, "The Grand Charter of the League of Nations," in *Nation*, 108:279-80; —, "How Our Allies Regard the Peace-League Plan," *L. D.*, 60:19ff, March 1, 1919.

A multitude of other references could be given, but space forbids. Students should be encouraged to read thoroughly and discuss at length, both in and out of class. Most libraries have special reference lists on this subject. A debate may be arranged if expedient.

## PROBLEMS OF TODAY

(Thirty-fifth Week)

Our social, economic and political problems are now largely identical with those of the older nations of the earth, save that the tradition of our frontier freedom remains to force solutions in the interest of the individual. We have, however, the special problems of assimilating multitudes of other diverse peoples into our national body. Among our problems are:

1. The rights of the social body—of all the people—vs. the rights and determinations of groups of men with vested interests.  
Bryce: II:297-310, 338-46, 612-29, 810-21; Canby, H. S.: "When Johnny Comes Marching Home," in *Cen. M.*, 97:686-93; Cheney, W. L.: "Industrial Democracy on Strike," in *Survey*, 42:892-3, September 27, 1919; Ogg and Beard: 559-60; Lescohier, D. D.: "Immigration and the Labor Supply," in *Atl. M.*, 123:483-90; —, "Industrial Democracy on Trial," in *Outl.*, 122:394-6; —, "Industrial Democracy," in *Ind.*, 97:319-20; —, "Industrial Democracy," in *Sci. Am.*, 121:52, July 19, 1919; —, "Supreme Law—Democracy or Class Rule?" in *Ind.*, 99:319-20; —, "What Is Industrial Democracy?" in *L. D.*, 62:20-2.
2. The reform of abuses in the various units of our government—national, state and local.  
Beard: "Contemporary American History," 283-303; Bryce: II:630-41, 655-62; Davenport, F. M.: "Spirit of Political Reconstruction in America," in *Outl.*, 121:61-2; Forman: 569-73; Giddings, F. H.: "Understanding Our Government," in *Ind.*, 101:432ff; Lowden, F. O.: "Business Governments," in *Saturday Evening Post*, 192:5, March 13, 1920; Thomas, C. S.: "Evils in Our Democracy," in *Forum*, 61:44-52; Waldron, W.: "Where Is America Going?" in *Cen. M.*, 100:266-74; —, "The President, the Cabinet, Bureaucracy and the Country," in *Outl.*, 120:523ff.
3. Social welfare laws and their administrations.  
Jane Addams: "Twenty Years in Hull House"; Crothers, S. M.: "On the Evening of the New Day," in *Atl. M.*, 123:123-9, January, 1919; Forman: 566-9; King: Ch. XIV, 182-217, 218-236; Latane: 303-20; Magruder: 417-25; Rogers: 419-45; Turner, F. J.: "Social Forces in American History," in *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, 16:217ff; Taylor, G.: "Illinois' Fruitful Legislature," in *Survey*, 42:592-3.
4. Education—the training of citizens.
  - a. Youth—the oncoming generation.  
Batchelder, N. H.: "Democracy and Education," in *Atl. M.*, 125:651-7; Bullard, Arthur: "Democracy and Diplomacy," in *Atl. M.*, 119:491-9; King: Ch. XVII; Magruder: 394-412; Rogers: 403-18; Sharp: "Democracy and Education," in *Atl. M.*, 124; Spaulding, F. E.: "Educating the Nation," in *Atl. M.*, 125:528-38; Text of Smith-Towner Bill, *School and Society*, 10:22-7; —, "If Hogs, Why Not Children?" in *Outl.*, 123:123-4; —, "Schooling Rated Equal to Farming," in *Survey*, 41:324.
  - b. Adults—the present generation in national life and affairs without proper training.  
Bryce: 469-90; Latane: 285-302; Rossiter, W. S.: "What Are Americans?" 270-81; —, "The Foreign-Born Population of the United States," map, *Science Monthly*, 8:380, April 3, 1919; "Races in the United States," series in *L. D.*, 1919-20.
5. Above all, the adjustment of our own government to the future organization of international scope, whatever that may prove to be—the fitting of our

own national life into an obviously imminent international scheme of things.

Beard: "Contemporary American History," 279-82; Bryce: II:845, 54; Coolidge (special topics for different countries): Chs. XVI-XIX, X-XV; Latane (China and Japan): 100-19; Ogg and Beard: 558-9.

## ELECTIVE

(Thirty-sixth Week)

Probably given to review and examination. If not, topical surveys dealing with the whole period of American history, or with long eras, are useful for integrating and reviewing the subjects studied. It is suggested that students be required to write essays and also to give connected, well-planned talks before the entire class on these reorganized subjects. The object is not so much to fix facts as to exercise critical ability, follow a train of thought through many digressions and phases and facilitate expression. These final efforts will also afford a test of two of the great objects of history—teaching, perhaps, the most important—the ability to distinguish between supported and unsupported statements and the socialized attitude.

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH. D.

Lord Charnwood, in writing on "Relations with America" (*Contemporary Review* for February) says:

"It does not seem as if the understanding [between England and America] was progressing quite as it ought, and it looks as if a large stock of their Christian good-sense and good humour, and patience and readiness to take men and things as they are, and sound good-will might be as needful here as in international affairs generally. . . . On our side the irritation would be a good deal lessened if we once recognized how remote America is from Europe. . . . Next, let it be realized that the highly civilized and supposedly practical people of America have as inefficient a machinery of government as probably now exists anywhere. . . . We know, or ought to know, that an ancient grudge against Great Britain survives in the United States. . . . Whatever jars between us the near future may produce, the path of wisdom for us lies in recognizing that, in the long run, the better people are the controlling force in America, that fundamentally American ambitions are sane, and, that between the same ambitions of America and our own, there can be no possible collision."

"Whatever unity there is in India has been created by Britain. . . . Not even now is there any bond to hold the people together and to keep the various religions from attacking the others, except the bond of the British Crown. Nor has any new India been born out of the Great War. . . . She stood aside disinterested and much bored at being forced to contribute some soldiers. . . . Melancholy, indeed, is the state of India. She stands on the brink of a great catastrophe. The air is heavy with coming disaster and the material progress of the last century, and more is threatened with destruction," says an anonymous writer in an article on "India on the Threshold," published in *Blackwood's* for February.

John Corbin has a remarkably sympathetic discussion of the relation of the socialist movement to the historical development of industry, in his article on "The New Socialism," which appears in the *North American Review* for March.



# Civics in Schools, with Special Reference to Grades IX and XII

BY ARTHUR W. DUNN, UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

I have no outline of subject matter to offer, and shall only attempt to give renewed emphasis to certain principles which I have long believed must control the development of civics courses if they are to be effective, but which have so far been only partially applied to efforts at reorganization of subject matter. While I shall speak solely from my own personal point of view, I stand squarely on the 1916 Report of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies, so far as general principles are concerned, and that Report aspired only to deal with principles.

One of the chief contributions of that Report, in my judgment, was that of fixing attention upon the immediate needs of the nation and of the individual pupil as the starting point of any promising attempt to reorganize the social studies. Good citizenship in an efficient democracy was set up as a primary objective of public education, and a large share of the responsibility for the result was assumed for the social studies. This, of course, was no new idea. What *was* new was the insistence of the Report that the idea be made to function in practice, and the attempt to suggest a basis for the choice of subject matter and method appropriate to the end.

In the four years since its publication, the N. E. A. Report has gained a considerable following. The war has aided and abetted in this result by causing the schools and the specialists in history and the other social studies to do in war time what the Report sought to encourage all the time, namely, to give greater weight to the social studies in education, and to make them function directly to meet the immediate social situation. The war situation increased interest in civic education and stimulated the reorganization of the curriculum to this end; the N. E. A. Committee's Report afforded a chart which seems to have guided many, at least, in their efforts to meet the need. New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Iowa afford conspicuous examples of this influence. Moreover, whether as a result of the influence of the N. E. A. Report or of independent thinking, most of the several Committees seeking a solution for the problem of curriculum, including the Committees of the Associations represented here, appear now to accept most of the main theses of the N. E. A. Report. It is a matter of congratulation to all concerned, including especially the schools themselves, that there appears to be closer agreement today among these Committees than there has ever been before.

One thing for which the N. E. A. Committee stood was continuous and cumulative civic training throughout the school career, from the first grade through the twelfth. It hardly seems possible that as recently as ten years ago almost the only provision made for systematic civic study was in the last year of the high school, and that most frequently as a mere appendage to American History. Today, not only do

all of our Committees agree in demanding the continuous course, but all over the country courses of study are being reorganized to provide for it.

Another distinctive feature of the N. E. A. Report was the emphasis given to the organization of social study in three cycles—elementary, junior and senior. Each cycle, while continuous with the next, was to be in a sense complete in itself, with a content and method appropriate to the pupil's mental and social capacities and needs. This plan of organization has been quite generally accepted.

In point of time, actual development of the new civics began in the second cycle, where community civics has found its place. From this central point in the course of study, reorganization has extended in both directions, but more rapidly downward than upward. Of the numerous courses in civics for the elementary grades which might be mentioned, some of them of considerable merit, I shall want to refer especially to one of them, partly because of the almost phenomenal demand for it and its rapid adoption by many cities and states, but particularly because it exemplifies more completely than any other course I know a principle to which the N. E. A. Report gave great weight and which applies equally to the work of the ninth and twelfth years. This is the course of "Lessons in Civics for the Six Elementary Grades of City Schools," by Hannah Margaret Harris, prepared and recently published by the U. S. Bureau of Education with the coöperation of the Junior Red Cross.

It is my theory, and that of the N. E. A. Report, that each cycle, and especially the second and third cycles, should culminate in a social study that brings the civic relations into sharp focus, and that *grows out of* all the social study and social experience that have preceded. Right here, it seems to me, is one of the points where efforts to reconstruct the social studies in the higher grades most frequently break down.

For example, I have just been "surveying" the schools of a certain city with respect to the provision made for civic education. I found civics instruction in every grade in the elementary schools and in the ninth and twelfth grades of the high school. Diligent inquiry among the teachers of history, civics and economics throughout the school system failed to disclose one who knew what was being done in the grades below his own, or even by other teachers in the same grade. A course in civics in any grade that is organized independently of what has preceded is inherently weak; and this is especially true of the courses of the ninth and twelfth years, which should coördinate and crown the work, not only of their respective cycles, but of all the years that have preceded. The higher grades need to be far more concerned about what is done lower down than the lower

grades need to be about what is done higher up. The high schools need to turn to the elementary schools more often, not with an attitude of domination, but with that of humble learners.

I am committed to the idea of a course of social study in the last year of the high school constructed on the lines advocated by the N. E. A. Committee under the title of "Problems of Democracy." When such a course was at first proposed, it encountered a good deal of skepticism. One reason for this, I think, was the failure to appreciate the fact that the proposed course was offered, not as an independent subject, but in definite relation to *twelve years* of social training and study, in which economic and sociological, as well as historical and civic, concepts emerge at many points.

"Problems of Democracy" has now been quite widely accepted into the family of social studies, even to the name. I understand that the Committees of both the American Historical Association and the American Sociological Society not only accept, but recommend, it. It is being included in the reorganized courses of study of many cities and some states, as in the case of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. New Jersey has even legislated it into all the high schools of the state as a required subject. Textbooks have begun to appear to meet the demand for it. But in spite of the recognition accorded to it, I feel that the efforts so far made to develop the course have fallen short of the mark. It is as easy to criticize the efforts of others as it is difficult to make constructive suggestion. I frankly confess that I have not visualized satisfactorily to myself the details of such a course for the last year of the high school as I am advocating in general terms; and my criticism of the efforts of others is made in no unfriendly spirit, for I think that every experiment made in the direction indicated by the N. E. A. Report has been a step in advance. I only wish to register my opinion that, in so far as these tentative efforts have fallen short of the mark, it is in large part, at least, because, like the traditional social sciences, they have been directed too largely to meeting supposed requirements of the future, without due regard for the present needs and for the past experience and training of the pupil.

The N. E. A. Report laid great stress upon a second principle, related to the one I have been discussing, and even more fundamental. It was stated at the very beginning of the Report in the words of Prof. Dewey: "If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves." Really believing in this principle to the extent of actually applying it in educational practice is apparently one of the most difficult things in the world. As applied to the social studies, it was accepted by many only with reservations. And yet, I believe, it is one of the soundest principles in education, and

that it should apply to civics instruction, whether in the elementary or high school grades.

It is because Miss Harris believes so thoroughly in this principle as to be able to apply it consistently in her work in the elementary grades that I have called especial attention to her Lessons in Civics for these grades in city schools. She states the principle thus: "We have repeatedly to remind ourselves that any material which has a legitimate place in the course holds that place because it is related to some 'civic situation' in which a child is normally to be found, and his reaction to which is capable of being modified by a 'civics lesson.' Of this sort of material there is no lack." I have stated the principle as follows: "One fault with efforts to train for citizenship has been that of concentrating too exclusively upon the citizenship that children are to enjoy and exercise in the future to the neglect of the citizenship that they are enjoying and experiencing *now*. A result of this is that our methods have been those of filling the mental storehouse for future use instead of those of cultivating a growing plant." For a thorough-going exemplification of the application of this principle to the work of the elementary grades, I commend to your attention the Lessons to which I have referred (Education Bulletin, 1920, No. 18), and the more general course which Miss Harris has outlined in the little book, "Citizenship in School and Out" (Heath).

Briefly stated, what Miss Harris has done is to select a series of typical situations in which a child normally finds himself in each year of his growth, and out of these situations to develop instruction that will affect his present habits and attitudes and gradually increase his information for present and future use. Along with an analysis of such situations, she suggests the kinds of lessons to be derived, methods by which they may be derived and the objectives to be aimed at in each case.

"The problem," says Miss Harris, "which we select for the purpose of training the child's judgment in social matters must be each and every time a child's problem, all its factors and conditions known to him, and its solution of some real concern to him." In discussing the proposed course in "Problems of Democracy" for the high school, the N. E. A. Committee said, "In actual life, whether as high school pupils or as adults, we face problems and not sciences." In a very suggestive article on "The Scientific Teaching of Science" in college, C. G. McArthur remarks, "We elders are so sure that out of our greater experience we can save our students effort and time. It is a clogging efficiency we seek. The greatest contribution we can make to a developing mind is 'to stand out of its sunlight' . . . The problem we ourselves find is a fascination; the problem someone else sets us is a task. And our memory in the latter case is treacherously unreliable, while the knowledge we worry out for ourselves is seldom forgotten."

What I want to say is that the "Problems of Democracy" proposed for the last year high school class, and the community civics of the ninth year, are no different in principle from the elementary work in

civics. Miss Harris's Lessons in Civics are a series of "problems of democracy"—problems of social life that the children of elementary school age actually face. A successful course in community civics is a course of problems of democracy such as boys and girls of twelve or fifteen years of age face. Boys and girls of the senior high school have problems of their own, and by this time many of them are problems touching the bigger things which also concern their elders. The difference is that they see these problems in the light of a more limited experience. It makes all the difference in the world in the educational value of a problem whether it has really presented itself to the pupil as a problem of his own, or has merely been assigned to him, or imposed upon him. We all know, for example, that there is a problem of "capital and labor." As a general social problem it may be easily analyzed, and we should expect to find it in any outline or manual for high school use. But what are the *eighteen-year-old boy's* problems of "capital and labor?" Has he any? This is another matter; and I would say that it is the *only* thing that matters.

Acceptance of this principle inevitably makes it a difficult matter to outline a course for general use. It must inevitably be the task of the teacher to find out what problems are really problems of his pupils; and, having discovered them, to attack them by what may be called the "natural" method of childhood and youth, which is, after all, the scientific method. To quote again from Mr. McArthur's article: "The logical order underlying the textbook and lecture is that of a person with many years' experience in a subject. The student approaches the subject in quite a different way, touching it only at a few, possibly unrelated points. The logic of another, more experienced mind lacks significance for him. He needs to evolve his own orderly arrangement of the subject. . . . No lecture, no textbook, or laboratory manual exactly fits anyone's needs. . . . Instead of memorizing facts for possible future use, the student is already at his life business of solving problems, the business he began, by the way, in the cradle. . . ."

I had occasion, recently, to write the following words: "Controversial questions, or questions regarding which there is much confused thinking, are likely to come up at any time. To evade them, when they come up naturally, is worse than useless. The pupils hear about them, and absorb information and misinformation about them, at home and elsewhere. The school is under obligation to afford a basis for *straight thinking*. It is of the utmost importance, however, *what* the school should attempt to teach in relation to such topics. It is *not* to lead the pupils to a final judgment regarding them; the pupils have no basis of experience for such judgments. It is *not* to afford adequate knowledge about the topics to enable them to form such judgments; they could not grasp it even if the teacher and the available textbooks could give it. The fundamental thing to be inculcated in young citizens in relation to such topics is an *appreciation of their complexity, an open-minded*

*attitude and a habit of deferring final judgments in the face of imperfect knowledge.*"

A member of the American Sociological Society's Committee, in discussing with me the relative position of that and other Committees with reference to this problem of curriculum, quoted to me the story of the four blind men and the elephant: One, feeling the elephant's side, likened the beast to a wall; another, feeling the trunk, likened it to a serpent; a third, feeling a leg, likened it to the trunk of a tree. In reply, I appropriated the story to illustrate my conception of the true value of a course in "Problems of Democracy." Let the pupils be the blind men, and let the elephant represent any "social problem," the solution of which is of some real concern to the pupils. One pupil says, "I saw this elephant, and it is this way." Another counters, "Naw, it isn't; I saw it, too, and it is thus and so." And a third says, "My father says it is so and so." Now, assuming that the teacher could so accurately describe the elephant as to cause the pupils to visualize it (which is doubtful if they had not actually experienced the beast), and could save them time by the description, my point is that this knowledge so acquired is of far less value to the pupils than the knowledge that from experience the elephant looks different to different people and from different angles, and the consequent respect for other people's opinions.

Passing now to the civics of the junior high school period, which I shall have to treat hurriedly: There is general agreement, I believe, that community civics should occupy a place in the junior high school grades. The Committees of the N. E. A., the American Historical Association and the American Sociological Society all agree, I believe, in recommending that the subject be distributed over all three grades, and the tendency seems to be strong in this direction. In practice, however, a single year is usually given to the subject, either the eighth or the ninth. I advocate the continuous course of civics instruction throughout the three grades.

I am frank to confess my belief that a great deal of the instruction given under the name of community civics is a dismal failure. This, I believe, is because many teachers and curriculum makers have seized upon some of the more incidental, even though important, features of community civics without recognizing its vital characteristics. For example, community civics performed a real service in giving emphasis to the study of the local community and local government, which were sadly neglected a few years ago. It was this emphasis, doubtless, that gave origin to the term "community civics." But local study, even though labelled community civics, may be, and often is, entirely lacking in vitality. On the other hand, community civics may be, and should be, as much a study of our national community, and, indeed, of the embryonic world community, as of the local community. The real significance of the term is not in its application to local study as is too generally inferred, but in its application to an interpretation of the *community-character* of national and international life equally with that of town or neighborhood.

Another distinct service that community civics performed was that of introducing certain elements of social, or "sociological," study into grades as low as the grammar school. This has resulted in frequent reference to community civics as "elementary sociology." In a tentative report of the Committee of the American Sociological Society, published some months ago, these words were used: "The course in elementary social science (commonly called community civics)." And, again, in listing the social studies of the junior high school period, it gives "American history and government" as one such study, and "elementary social science or community civics" as another. I do not desire to quibble over terms, and the point I am raising would not be worth mentioning if it were not for an unfortunate result of confusing the terms, namely, that in many schools we find a more or less vitalized social study that might be called social science, but that often is called community civics, *followed by* a formal course in American government that shows no obvious, organic relation to the earlier study. Whatever else community civics may be, it affords a *method of studying government*. Whatever else it may accomplish, one of its foremost aims should be *to make government, including that of the nation, mean something to the young citizen; to create in the young citizen, now, a proper attitude toward government.*

"The Declaration of Independence," we read in *The New Freedom*, "did not mention the questions of our day. It is of no consequence to us unless we can translate its general terms into examples of the present day and substitute them in some vital way for the examples it itself gives, so concrete, so intimately involved in the circumstances of the day in which it was conceived and written. . . ." But we must go further than this. As teachers of boys and girls of 13, 14 and 15 years of age, we need to remember that translating the ideals of the fathers into questions of our own day means more than merely translating them into the terms of twentieth century problems, which is often as far as we get. It means translating them into terms familiar to the experience of these 13-15-year-old boys and girls. Too often we think we are doing our full duty when we discuss with our boys and girls "current events" or "local conditions"; too often we leave these events and conditions as unrelated to the experience of the boys and girls, and therefore as unintelligible to them, as if they were events and conditions of the sixteenth century, A. D. or B. C.

I can conceive of more than one successful way of organizing community civics in the junior high school grades; and the more I think about it the less I feel inclined to lay down hard and fast rules for such organization. But I believe that community civics, properly conceived and properly related to earlier civic training, may appropriately be begun in the seventh grade and continued through the eighth along somewhat broad lines, and coördinate with history; and that, if it is so carried through the seventh and eighth grades, the ninth year course may well take a decided economic "slant," its point of departure

being the interest of boys and girls at this time in the problem of earning a living, which is now occupying their thought to a greater or less extent.

Here, again, I have no clearly conceived outline of content in mind. But I have the same negative reaction to the experiments that have so far come to my attention in this connection that I have toward those pertaining to the last year of the high school, and largely for the same general reasons. The ninth year is certainly not the place for a course in economics along the traditional lines. The N. E. A. Committee declared that the purpose of this course should not be primarily that of "vocational guidance," although it might contribute incidentally to that end, and although the name "vocational civics" was suggested for lack of a better. Practically all of the suggestions that I have seen are concerned too exclusively, or too largely, with a body of information relating to economic law or to industrial organization, justified on the ground of its supposed usefulness to society in general, and too rarely related to the immediate life of the pupil himself.

During the war the children and youth of America raised hundreds of millions of dollars in their country's service, through organized coöperation in the Junior Red Cross, the Boy Scouts, the School Garden Army and other agencies, almost always with the coöperation of the schools. Most forms of service, in peace as well as in war, require dollars. The good citizen is called upon to devote his dollars as well as his head, his heart and his hands, to service for the common good. Young citizens need to learn this. They need to learn that money is meant for service. They need to learn, however, that before they can serve with money, it must be their own; and that it is their own only when they earn it, or sacrifice for it. They need to learn, moreover, that the only way to earn money is by performing service of some kind for others. And, furthermore, they need to learn that money may be devoted to service in a variety of ways: not only when it is given to relieve suffering and to carry good cheer to those who are unfortunate, but also when it is wisely spent for one's own personal needs—food, clothing, education, recreation—in order that one may be *fit* for service. It is devoted to service when it is invested in productive enterprises, large or small, by which the means of supplying wants are produced for those who need them. And it is devoted to service when it is given or lent to the Government in order that Government may perform the service that is expected of it. If there is one lesson more than another which community civics should carry over into the consciousness and conscience of Young America, it is that service, mutual service, teamwork in service for the common good, is the very foundation of normal community life in a democracy. This, I take it, should be the keynote of the ninth year work, but with large application to what elders call the economic relations of life.

In conclusion, I may only allude to another factor in the process of civic training that is absolutely vital. We must make larger use, all along the line, of the

boys' and girls' activities as a means of civic training. Miss Harris has recognized this in her work in the elementary schools. It is essential in community civics, it is essential in the later years of the high school. Instruction should consist less in adding from books to the pupils' knowledge, and more in interpreting actual experience. Moreover, opportunity must be sought to extend the pupils' experience by means of organized project activities. A large part of the educational values derived from war time was due, not to the changes in subject matter of instruction, but to the fact that the boys and girls were actually participating in a great national enterprise. Since the close of the war, the schools are properly seeking to return to their normal educational functions, and the question naturally arises as to how far activities similar to those justified in war time have a place in the schools in time of peace. The answer is, first, of course, only to the extent that the enterprises have a worthy object; and, second, to the extent that they contribute positively to the effectiveness of the schools' proper work, enrich the course of study, and train the pupils in civic usefulness. Enterprises for earning, saving, budgeting, spending, investing, giving and accounting for money are not only justified, but are necessary, if such economic lessons as those referred to in the last paragraph are to be effectively taught. The teacher of civics in any grade will be successful in proportion as he utilizes the normal experiences of his pupils, and seeks to extend that experience in a wide range of participation in group and community activities.

## Book Reviews

GREENWOOD, JOSEPHINE HEERMANS. *Our Heritage from the Old World*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1921. pp. 21, 449. \$....

This is a survey of general history from the earliest records to the settlement of America. The writer tells us that it has in mind more particularly the sixth-year course, but that it may be used as late in the curriculum as the junior high school. A little less than half of the book is devoted to the period prior to the beginning of the middle ages, but no record is made of the condition under which men lived before, say, the conditions to be found in civilized Egypt. There are something over two hundred well-selected illustrations; a dozen maps; and at the end of each chapter about one page of "suggestive questions." The author has evidently written with her title in view; and has made a real effort to introduce children to the civilization which our ancestors brought to America. It seems to be on a level with the best of such efforts.

As one turns through the pages, however, and reads the accounts, illustrated with pictures, of Cheops, the Carthaginian Warrior, Pericles, Sappho, Roman triremes and implements of war, the druids, and the like, one wonders whether after all we want a little encyclopedia of general knowledge for the little children. By using this book the teacher may show the succession of events since civilization was somewhat matured; but will the child get an inkling of the story of the rise of man from barbarism?

Will the little child get any real idea of progress in history? Furthermore, with all of these facts to master, will the teacher and pupil have time to get any of the training in the recognition of how history is recorded for us, on which Professor Henry Johnson lays so much stress? This training can be gotten by using some of the facts in this book; but will not the teacher be irresistibly tempted to "cover the ground"? The reviewer does not mean to criticize this particular book in this respect. It is like nearly all of the others.

FORMAN, S. E. *The American Democracy*. New York: The Century Company, 1920. Pp. 19, 474. \$1.75.

This text is based largely on the author's earlier work, *Advanced Civics*, which the publishers say, with truth if not with modesty, "is known the world over as one of the most successful works in the field." They also say, and truthfully, that this is a real improvement on the older book; but their claim that the new book is so well adapted for use in the course on problems of democracy, now being planned for the twelfth school year, may be more doubtful. That course is still unformulated, but most of those who are working on it are planning for something like equal proportions of economics, government, and sociology. If this tendency continues, it is probably that Dr. Forman's book will be too full for that course. On the other hand, some propose that the course shall consist of one-half economics and one-half government. If this program is accepted, Dr. Forman's book will not be too full; it may turn out to be a little more elementary than some teachers would like. However this may be, the guild of social science teachers are in debt to the author for a really useful text, as texts in government for the schools go.

The author shows a more intimate acquaintance with what is being done to perfect our political institutions than any other textbook writer after whom the present reviewer has read. On pages 168-170 he shows a thorough appreciation—as thorough as the space, which is entirely too limited for this important subject—of the proposals for the consolidation of state offices. He pays his compliments to county and city home rule. It probably should not be charged against him that he makes little if any reference to the plans for improving the present county government which he properly denounces. His account of the city manager plan is exceptionally satisfactory for so brief a discussion.

In his discussion of Federal, state, and local finance, the author takes his stand frankly on the side of the executive budget, and leaves no doubt in the mind of the student that this tenet of modern political reform is one that should be supported. Nearly two pages are devoted to the League of Nations, which is discussed with appreciation and apparent approval. It is a pleasant thing to find publisher and author uniting in the effort to teach the rising generations of American youth to think in constructive terms of their government.

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Volume XII.  
Number 7.

PHILADELPHIA, OCTOBER, 1921.

\$2.00 a year.  
25 cents a copy.

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## The Jolly Puritan

BY HENRY W. LAWRENCE, JR., CONNECTICUT COLLEGE

Nothing new could possibly be uttered about the *austerity* of the Puritan, but there is still much to be said concerning his *jollity*. During more than a century, tireless orators have stupefied their reverent hearers with indiscriminating praise of the stern virtues that were the glory of early New England. And when the image-breakers of our own irreverent times have risen to reply, they have usually seen and smitten only a figure of unhuman sternness, made awful by his worshippers. It is high time that justice be done to the humanity, the frailty, and the frivolity of our formidable ancestors. For example, all we loyal New Englanders have known from our youth up of Cotton Mather's views on witchcraft and his discussion of the "nature, number and operations of the devils;" but why we have not been as freely informed of how he narrowly escaped a breach of promise suit while courting his second wife? We will not love them less, these forefathers of ours, if we see them gay as well as grave; and we may cease to think of them as largely the creatures of a moralized and provincial mythology.

Pray why should not the Puritan have been a man of jollity? Think of his immeasurable advantage over us of today. The prohibition amendment was then nearly three centuries in the future; and the abundant sources of the jovial mood were neither outlawed nor reduced to an ineffective weakness. We have it on the authority of Increase Mather himself "that strangers said that they had seen more drunkenness in New England in half a year than in England in all their lives." And it would be hard for us twentieth century sojourners in the Great American Desert, still unweaned from at least our memories, to recall a more genial and charming party than the one which Judge Samuel Sewall describes as follows:

"I went to the Town House on the occasion of the Queen's birthday; Mr. Bromfield and I sat a while in one of the windows, Table being full; afterward sat in. A little before sunset I went away . . . My neighbor Colson knocks at our door about 9, or past to tell of the disorders at the tavern at the South-end in Mr. Addington's house, kept by John Wallis. He desired me that I would accompany Mr. Bromfield and Constable Howell thither. It was 35 minutes past nine at night before Mr. Bromfield came; then we went. I took Æneas Salter with me. Found much Company. They refus'd to go away.

Said they were there to drink the Queen's health, and they had many more healths to drink. Called for more Drink: drank to me, I took notice of the Affront to them. Said must and would stay upon that Solemn occasion. Mr. John Netmaker drank the Queen's health to me. I told him I drank none; upon that he ceas'd. Mr. Brinley put on his hat to affront me. I made him take it off. I threaten'd to send some of them to prison; that did not move them. They said they could but pay their fine, and doing that they might stay. I told them if they had not a care, they would be guilty of a riot. Mr. Bromfield speak of raising a number of men to Quell them, and was in some heat, ready to run into the Street. But I did not like that. Not having Pen and Ink, I went to take their names with my Pensil, and not knowing how to spell their names, they themselves of their own accord writ them . . . At last I addressed myself to Mr. Banister. I told him he had been longest an Inhabitant and Freeholder, I expected he would set a good Example in departing thence. Upon this he invited them to his own house, and away they went; and we, after them, went away. The Clock in the room struck a pretty while before they departed. I went directly home, and found it 25 Minutes past Ten at Night when I entered my own House."

Here endeth the quotation from Judge Sewall, rich with the fragrance of a jollity and good fellowship that would not be restrained.

The Puritan possessed another advantage conducive to a jolly life which might arouse the envy of some of his twentieth century brethren. Not only the prohibition amendment (but also the suffrage amendment) was still undreamed of, and the pre-eminence of the brutal sex was unchallenged. In that happy, golden, masculine age, man possessed all the rights, but generously allowed to his wife a liberal share in the duties. Perhaps this explains why there were only six divorces in the whole history of Plymouth down to 1691, a period of seventy years, and also why the bereft husband so commonly and so promptly found a successor for his deceased wife. Illustrative incidents are full of inspiration for a degenerate posterity. Let us consider the cases of two very eminent widowers, and the manner in which they did right piously and rather speedily emerge from the dreary solitude of their widowhood and enter once more upon the glad companionship of

second marriage. First, a love letter, written by the recently bereft Dr. Wigglesworth to the widow Avery, in which he commends his cause to the Lord and to her:

"Mrs. Avery and my very kind friend.

I heartily salute you in the Lord with many thanks for your kind entertainment when I was with you March 2d. I have made bold once more to visit you by a few lines in the enclosed paper."

The "enclosed paper" is a veritable brief of arguments to convince said Mrs. Avery that the Lord God, Wigglesworth, and good business sense, all unite in urging her to become Mrs. Wigglesworth. He sees God's hand in the whole affair, because it was a case of love at first sight, or, as he puts it,

"At first that I got a little acquaintance with you by a short and transient visit having been altogether a stranger to you before, and that so little acquaintance should leave such impressions behind it, as neither Length of Time, distance of Place, nor any other objects would wear off, but that my thoughts and heart have been toward you ever since . . ."

But far be it from Dr. Wigglesworth to let the spirit of passionate romance usurp the leadership of piety and business prudence in this affair of the heart. He clears up that point in argument No. 3:

"8ly . . . I have not been led hereunto by fancy (as too many are in like cases) but by sound Reason and Judgment, Principally Loving and desiring you for those gifts and graces God hath bestowed upon you, and Propounding the Glory of God, the adorning and furtherance of the Gospel. The spiritual as well as outward good of myself and family, together with the good of yourself and children (are the) Ends inducing me hereunto . . ."

Arguments 6 and 10, relating to business cares and personal health, are expressed thus:

"6ly. Consider, if you should continue where you are whether the looking after and managing of your outward business and affairs may not be too hard for you, and hazzard your health again? . . . 10ly. As my late wife was a means under God of my recovering a better state of health; so who knows but God may make you instrumental to preserve and prolong my health and life to do him service. . . And for the other objection from the number of my children and difficulty of guiding such a family. 1st the Number may be lessened if there be need of it." by assassination, perhaps, though Dr. Wigglesworth does not specify the method by which he will lessen the number of his children if requested.

But this widower Wigglesworth and widow Avery affair is incomparably less exciting and tempestuous than the almost breach of promise case that the Rev. Dr. Cotton Mather narrowly avoided. The dear, good, guileless man records it in his diary; calls it "a very astonishing Trial;" and yet, to the worldly-minded reader, he shows unmistakable signs of enjoying it hugely, though frequently interrupted by his two-hundred horse-power conscience.

"There is a young Gentlewoman of incomparable accomplishments," he writes. "No gentlewoman in

the English America has had a more polite education. She is one of rare Witt and Sense; and of a Comely Aspect; and extremely winning in her conversation." Here the reverend Puritan realizes he has been gushing a bit, so he adds quickly, "and she has a mother of an extraordinary character for her piety." Unhappily he cannot make any such statement about the girl herself. "She is not much more than twenty years old," he says (he was forty); then adds reluctantly, "I know she has been a very airy person. Her reputation has been under some disadvantage."

Evidently this charming young creature of two centuries ago had the soul of an ultra-modern; she was aggressively feminist; and she had firmly resolved to win, or at least to capture, this eminent widower. She began with commendable promptness in February, the first Mrs. Mather having died in the preceding December. She began with vigor also, as the following lines from the diary attest:

"This young gentlewoman first addresses me with diverse letters, then makes me a visit at my house; wherein she gives me to understand that she has long had a more than ordinary value for my ministry; and that since my present condition has given her more liberty to think of me, she must confess herself charmed with my person, to such a degree, that she could not but break in upon me, with her most importunate requests, that I would make her mine."

With the speed of a cinema scenario this violent wooing develops other very modern symptoms. Love's camouflage together with a smoke-screen of piety accompanies the amatory barrage. The young lady protests that the highest consideration she had in this whole affair, (quoting the diary again), "was her eternal salvation, for if she were mine, she could not but hope the effect of it would be, that she would also be Christ's. I endeavored faithfully," continues the fascinated and somewhat alarmed divine, "to sett before her, all the discouraging circumstances attending me, that I could think of. She told me that she had weighed all those discouragements, but was fortified and resolved with a strong faith in the mighty God for to encounter them all . . . I was in a great strait how to treat so polite a gentlewoman, thus applying herself unto me. I plainly told her that I feared whether her proposal would not meet with insurmountable oppositions from those who had a great interest in disposing of me . . . In the mean time, if I could not make her my own, I should be glad of being any way instrumental to make her the Lord's. I turned my discourse, and my design into that channel; and with as exquisite artifice as I could use, I made my essayes to engage her young soul into piety."

From the next entry in the diary on this subject, it would appear that the girl's project was advancing more successfully than the minister's. He laments his disturbed condition of mind: "I am in the greatest straits imaginable what course to steer. Nature itself causes in me a mighty tenderness for a person so very amiable." And a week later he writes: "Ar

for my special soul-harassing point; I did some days ago . . . vehemently beg, as for my life, that it might be desisted from, and that I might not be killed by hearing any more of it. Yett such was my flexible tenderness, as to be conquered by the importunities of several, to allow some further interviews."

An entry dated about three weeks later indicates that the community had taken notice and begun to talk about this astonishing romance: "Satan has raised an horrid storm of reproach upon me, both for my earliness in courting a gentlewoman, and especially for my courting of a person whom they generally apprehend so disagreeable to my character. And there is hazard lest my usefulness be horribly ruined, by the clamour of the rash people on this occasion. . . . My spirit is excessively broken. There is danger of my dying suddenly, with smothered griefs and fears."

At last,—and it was only a bit more than a month after the first attack,—Cotton Mather reached his decision. It supports the view that the course of true love never did run less smooth than in Puritan New England. It sustains the opinion that the man who called love the greatest thing in the world, was unfamiliar with the New England conscience before it grew rusty from disuse. The fear of God and of public opinion seem to have played about equal parts in compelling this decision, which its author states as follows:

"And now, being after all due deliberation fully satisfied, that my countenancing the proposals of coming one day to a marriage with the gentlewoman so often mentioned in these papers, will not be consistent with my public serviceableness; but that the prejudices in the minds of the people of God against it are insuperable, and little short of universal; I sett myself to make unto the Lord Jesus Christ, a sacrifice of a person, who, for many charming accomplishments, has not many equals in the English America . . . I struck my knife into the heart of my sacrifice by a letter to her mother."

The sacrificial knife could not have acquired any rust, however, before the Reverend Cotton Mather was at it again. But not for another sacrifice; this time it was a safe hit, that took him to second. It seemed to him a sort of reward for virtue and a providential leading. "God shows me a gentlewoman," he writes, "within two houses of my own; a gentlewoman of piety and probity, and a most unspotted reputation; a gentlewoman of good witt and sense, and discretion at ordering a household; a gentlewoman of incomparable sweetness in her temper and humour; a gentlewoman honourably descended and related; and a very comely person." Aged thirty, and a widow of four years waiting, she conformed perfectly to the plans and specifications. Moreover, this match was sanctioned by public opinion: "the universal satisfaction which it has given to the people of God through town and country, proclaims itself, to a degree which perfectly amazes me." Thus at last, after a delay of only eight

months, this eminent divine was once again safe from malicious gossip and ferocious feminine attack.

Before leaving Cotton Mather, however, we must glance at a still more surprising aspect of his Puritanic nature. There is some evidence that seems to brand him as a teller of monstrously improbable yarns. In particular, his stories of the cold weather he experienced would arouse the envy of the most daring Ananian humorist; yet he relates them with austere gravity and a wealth of pious phrases. Thus, in 1697, he writes: "I attempted this day the exercises of a secret fast before the Lord. But so extremely cold was the weather, that in a warm room, on a great fire, the juices forced out at the end of short billets of wood, by the heat of the flame on which they were laid, yet froze into ice at their coming out." Now what must we think of a man who will put that sort of thing in his diary, to be read by his soberly trustful descendants? Why, this is putting a fringe of frost on the flames themselves. There is only one reasonable explanation for it. Mather was a jolly chap, after all; and this was a sample of his slap-dash humor. A kind of religious joke it was, for he continues with the utmost gravity: "This extremity of cold caused me to desist from the purpose which I was upon; because I saw it impossible to serve the Lord, without much distraction . . ." Evidently the Puritan conscience made room for a chuckle now and then amid the prayers and signs.

Obviously the grown-up Puritans enjoyed a few genial frivolities; but we have been led to believe that their children were nurtured on gloom and harsh restraint. Perhaps there were compensations that we overlook. Some things they had to endure which our children escape; but, on the other hand, they were happily free from some of the horrors of modern childhood. Illustrations of each of these may help the reader to decide whether it were jollier to be a child in the seventeenth century or in the twentieth. Firstly, a few words, quoted, to show the mental attitude of the grown-up toward childhood in Puritan times: "When very young," says Nathaniel Mather, "I went astray from God, and my mind was altogether taken with vanities and follies; such as the remembrance of them doth greatly abase my soul within me. Of the manifold sins which then I was guilty of, none so sticks upon me as that, being very young, I was whittling on the Sabbath day; and for fear of being seen, I did it behind the door. A great reproach of God! A specimen of that Atheism that I brought into the world with me . . ." Is it not fair to assume that a man with such a past would safeguard his offspring from like grievous sins against the Sabbath?

But what kind of time were these precious little immortal souls allowed to have on weekdays? One can guess from some remarks on the subject by the father of Sammy Mather, aged ten. He writes: "I must think of some exquisite and obliging ways to abate Sammy's inordinate love of play. His play wounds his faculties. I must engage in some nobler

entertainments." And again: "What shall be done for the raising of Sammy's mind above the debasing meannesses of play?" Here is what was done: "Entertain Sammy betimes with the first rudiments of geography and astronomy, as well as history, and so raise his mind above the sillier diversions of childhood." Later: "Heap a great library on my little Samuel." Apparently this quite overwhelmed the sinful ten-year old, for the next entry records that, "Sammy is united with a society of sober and pious lads who meet for exercises of religion. I will allow them the use of my library for the place of their meeting, and give them directions and entertainments."

The twentieth century boy, placed in such a situation, would doubtless remark that he was having a thin time; yet he has his own peculiar troubles, especially in his very earliest years. A well-known writer has shown this in describing a visit to a friend who was bringing up his offspring strictly according to the latest and most scientific methods:

"Whin we got downstairs, Hogan give me a lek-choor on the bringin' up uv childher . . . 'In the old days,' says he, 'childher was brought up catch-as-catch-can,' he says. 'But it's different now. They're as carefully watched as a geeraynyum in a consarvatory,' he says. 'I have a book here on the subjick,' he says. 'Here it is. Th' first thing that shud be done fur a child is to deprive it iv its parents. The less th' infant sees of poppa and momma th' better f'r him. If they ar-re so base as to want to look at th' little darlin' they shud first be examined be a competent physician to see that there is nawthin wrong with them that they cud give th' baby. They wil thin take a bath iv sulphuric acid, an' havin' carefully attired thimselves in a sturilized rubber suit, they will approach within eight feet iv th' object iv their ignoble affection, an' lave at wanst. In no case must they kiss, hug, or fondle their progeny. Manny diseases, such as lumbago, pain in th' chest, premachoor baldness, senile decrepitude, which are privalent among adults, can be communicated to a child fr'm th' parent. Besides, its bad f'r th' moral nachoor iv th' infant. Affection f'r its parents is wan iv th' most dangerous symptoms iv rickets. Th' parents may not be worthy iv th' love iv a thurly sturilized child. An' infant's first jooty is to th' docthor, to whom it owes its bein' and stayin'. Childher ar-re imitative, an' if they see much iv their parents they may grow up to look like thim. That wud be a great misfortune. If parents see their childher before they enter harvard they ar-re forbidden to teach thim foolish wurruds like 'poppa' and 'momma.' At two a properly brought up child shud be able to artickylate distinctly th' wurrud "Docthur Bolt on th' Care and Feedin' iv Infants," which is better thin sayin' 'momma,' an' more exact."

From these suggestive glimpses of the two sorts of childhood, the severely Puritan and the strictly modern, which shall we prefer? The answer is by no means obvious. Our forefathers sterilized their children's souls that they might escape hell-fire; we

sterilize our children's bodies that they may escape lesser ills that seem more limitant. Certainly it is lucky for the modern child that it has to endure only one of these sterilizations.

Some few of these Puritan youngsters grew up and went to college. And here again we encounter one of those time-honored myths about our ancestors which make them seem to us not quite human. We commonly think of the American college man of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as so incurably addicted to studious piety that he found little time for play and none for dissipation. It is hard to reconcile with this view such an incident as the following, recorded by one Ezra Clap, in 1788: "Last night some of the freshmen got six quarts of Rhum and about two payls fool of Sydar and about eight pounds of suger and mad it in to Samson, and evited every scholer in college into Churtis is room, and we mad such prodigius Rought that we raised the Tutor, and he ordered us all to our rooms and some went and some taried and they gathered a gain and went up to old father Monsher dore and drumed against the dore and yeled and screamed so that a bodey would have thought that they were killing dogds there . . ." This occurred at Yale; but Harvard too, had its searchers after the realities not found in book or sermon. Witness the following incident of a few years earlier: "Mr. Graves, not having his name for nought, lost the love of the undergraduates by his too much austerity, whereupon they used to strike a nail above the hall door-catch while we were reciting to him, and so nail him in the hall." Another escapade had to do with the timeless custom of hazing freshmen: "March, 1682. The Corporation met in the College Library between 9 and 10 of the clock, being Monday: About 8 of the clock the undergraduates were called in the Hall to be examined about the abusing of freshmen. About 5 of the clock . . . they were called in again to hear the Corporation's conclusion. That Webb should have what gifts were bestowed on him by the College taken away, and that he should be expelled the College . . . Moreover Danforth, Myles, (and) Watson were publicly admonished for speaking irreverently about the Corporation."

The last bit of evidence to be adduced here in trying to show that our forefathers, during their college days, were touched with infirmities like unto those of their latest descendants, is a series of extracts from a diary. Nathaniel Ames seems to have entered Harvard in 1758 and completed his course in 1761. His jottings throughout these four years include such items as the following:

"March 13, 1758, Came to College, began Logick.

18, fit with the Sophomores about Customs.

20, Had another Fight with the Sophomores.

Nov. 23, went to Boston, the Revenge acted at Bowmans.

June 13, 1760, acted Tanered and Sigismunda for which we are like to be prosecuted.

Sept. 9, President sick, wherefore much Deviltry carried on in college.



Oct. 1, 1 scholar degraded this morning, 2 admonished, 1 punished.

10, Kneeland's and Thayer's windows broke last night.

Dec. 22, Gardner and Barnard admonished stealing wood.

Feb. 26, 1761, lost 2 pistareens at cards last evening.

March 26, first game of bat and ball.

April 15, Dependants on the Favors of the President and Tutors sign an agreement to inform of any scholar that is guilty of profanity.

May 19, Joseph Cabot rusticated. As soon as the President said he was rusticated, he took his hat and went out of the chapel without staying to hear the President's speech out. After prayers he bulrags the Tutors at a high rate and leaves College. His mother faints at the news.

20, Chapel robbed of the Cushing and Bible Cloths. July 15, Commencement.

16, a dance in Town House, Cambridge."

Here the case for the jolly Puritans must rest: the evidence is in. The witnesses were few but fairly representative; their testimony essentially true, if not always typical. We have seen the austere founder as a bibulous and convivial soul, a domestic despot hastening eagerly back from the exile of widowhood to the renewal of his kingship, a salvation-seeking religionist with just a trace of laughter in his heart; and his offspring we have watched emerging from a premature addiction to piety and learning, into a rather familiar, modernish sort of college career. Not a bad sort of neighbor, this. A good citizen according to his lights and environment. But not a fleshless demi-god or a haloed ascetic.

## Germans Views of War Responsibility and Peace Terms

BY PROFESSOR R. W. KELSEY, HAVERFORD COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

The answers to two questions of the questionnaire to German professors of history (see *The Historical Outlook*, May, 1921) have been reserved for separate treatment.

### 1. RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE WAR

*Question:* Where do history professors place the responsibility for the outbreak of the great war?

In printing the replies to this question it is again the policy of the present writer to refrain from adverse comment. A few non-controversial observations, however, may be allowable.

In the first place it is to be noted that there is a considerable diversity in the several replies. Answers *c* and *d* are divergent both in letter and spirit.

It should be noted also that the question (purposefully) made no distinction between immediate and remote causes in fixing responsibility. Writers *c* and *h* made the distinction in their replies. It seems to the present compiler well-nigh impossible to apportion responsibility on the basis of remote causes—long-spun policies, selfish, competitive, nationalistic, imperialistic, and more or less jingoistic on all sides. Actual war-like *intention* is better judged by the action of governments when an immediate occasion for war arises.

The most recent scholarly study of war responsibility by an American scholar is by Professor S. B. Fay in *The American Historical Review* of July and October, 1920, and January, 1921. Professor Fay's findings on German and Austrian responsibility are not far different from those expressed in *c* and *h* below. He also assigns a share of responsibility to the Russian military clique that "flatly disobeyed and deceived" the Tsar by hastening mobilization. It should be said, moreover, that, as between Austria and Germany, it would now seem that the greater

burden of guilt belongs to Austria, and more particularly to Count Berchtold, Foreign Minister of the Dual Monarchy. It was generally supposed in America during the war that Austria was a mere tool of Germany in precipitating the war. In the light of the new documentary evidence from German and Austrian archives it appears that nearly the reverse was the case.

Names are omitted from the following answers as agreed upon when the questionnaire was sent out, except in the case of Professor Jacob, who specified that his name might be used. The replies are from well-known historians in some of the leading German Universities.

*a.* The French idea of revenge and the Russian craving for expansion.

*b.* The French idea of revenge, the envy of England and her friends, the panslavism of Russia, and the incapacity of the German diplomacy and leadership. The German people did not dream of world dominion.

*c.* The question is to be answered in this way, that neither an individual man nor an individual state is responsible. Responsible is the nationalistic and jingo spirit which prevailed in all States. On the part of Germany and Austria there was *no intention* to start the great war, but the serious bungling of the German Emperor and of the German and Austrian statesmen brought about the war—*against their intentions*—which the Russian and French nationalists desired. The war is the result of the nationalistic-jingo current of the last decades, caused more by heedlessness and panic than by conscious intention.

*d.* The Russian government alone.

e. This question seems to me to be put in quite an unhistorical manner. When children quarrel, one may possibly ask who started it. But the great clashes of nations, according to my conception of history, do not originate by the fault of an individual, but are the inevitable accompaniments of the life process of mankind. Each nation is growing by dint of its innate vital power, America as well as England, Germany, Russia, etc. From this the great wars originate without there being any question of individual fault. As long as America does not concede to the German nation the same right to live and to grow as to other nations, I consider all attempts at coming to an understanding futile. That the right of living is contested to the Germans is proved by the Treaty of Versailles.

f. I consider it practically useless to reply to this question because America does not act toward us on the basis of historical justice, but according to her business interests.

g. France and Russia are responsible for the outbreak of the war. As for England it may perhaps be said that she drifted into war, which Lloyd George lately said of all European powers. It remains, however, possible that England consciously brought about the war; this question cannot yet be answered finally. Germany quite surely did not desire the war, least of all the Emperor. In particular there existed not a vestige of an intention to make conquests. German policy, however, was very bungling.

h. In the case of this question it is necessary to determine what is meant by: "Who is responsible for the outbreak of the great war?" If it refers to those who for years strove to bring about a war in order to satisfy their intentions of revenge and conquest and who then consciously made use of the Austro-Serbian conflict in order to start the great war, the answer is: *The Russian war party and the French politicians of revenge. In Germany nobody desired or wished war. Only Independent Socialists and Communists still dare to assert the contrary. All documents published prove the opposite and this conviction is also gaining more and more ground in those circles which at the time of the revolution allowed themselves to be deceived by Socialist catchwords and calumniations.*

If it is asked, however, *who is responsible that after Sarajevo the great war came about*, it should be said:

1. The Austrians desired in the interest of their state to deprive Serbia of the power of injuring them in the future, and had the right to do so. But they must be blamed for failing to recognize that this could only be done in agreement with the great powers, especially with Russia, if they desired to avoid war.

2. Germany, i. e. Bethmann-Hollweg, completely failed to recognize the seriousness of the situation, especially the danger that England must make use of that opportunity to settle with her economic rival, Germany. He allowed himself to be taken by surprise and pledged by Austria, and was brought by

the men of the Entente who hankered for war into a situation which forced him into a war for defense.

3. England deserves blame for having done nothing to avert the danger of the war which she foresaw, and she finally thought she would best reach her aim of weakening Germany by taking part in the war.

4. Those hankering for war (Kriegshetzer) in *Paris and St. Petersburg did all they could to make war inevitable*. Only from London could peace have been maintained. That *Germany was blamed for the war by the world is due only to the incapacity of Bethmann-Hollweg*. He ought to have waited for the actual crossing of the frontiers by Russia and France, which took place on August 1 and 2, and declared: "We have been attacked, war upon us has begun in the East and West." He ought not to have spoken of a wrong committed against Belgium by entering it with our armies, because she had broken her neutrality in spirit long ago.

—PROFESSOR JACOB, *University of Tübingen*

(NOTE: While the above replies came from university professors, the three following were made by teachers in the higher schools.)

i. Capitalistic and imperialistic development in general. The policy of the Entente, especially of England, which allowed Russia to have her way. Bethmann-Hollweg's misjudgment of British policy and his impudent attitude in the Serbian question which, according to his opinion, could not lead to a great war.

j. The French idea of revenge. England's fear of German commercial competition and of the German navy. Pan Slavism. The clash of Russian and German interests in the Balkans—in short, the greatness of Germany in the field of culture and commerce.

k. One of the main instigators of the war was M. Poincaré who was sent by Delcassé to Russia shortly before the war. The Belgian documents also prove this. On the other hand we have drifted into war, partly through the bungling of our own statesmen, viz.—declarations of war against Russia and France. This responsibility has been admitted by Tirpitz.

[It may be stated here that the frank admission of responsibility, in c, h, i, 1, 2 and 4, and k above, is valuable. To call it "bungling" or "ineptitude" (Ungeschick), as in c and k, is, however, to use a rather mild term.]

l. In addition to the above replies it seems worth while to mention here a recent treatise on responsibilities (Verantwortlichkeiten) by Professor Richard Fester, of the University of Halle. Instalments of this study appeared in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, (Berlin), in May, June, August, and October, 1920, and in February, 1921. It is reported that the concluding article will appear in the issue of May, 1921. This treatise is referred to by one German professor as the most scholarly study that has yet appeared in Germany on the subject. Not even a complete summary of it can be included in this article. Two or three interesting points may, however, be mentioned.

In general it may be said that the writing is

nationalistic in tone—defensive, for the most part, of Germany's role in modern international affairs. His citations of facts and authorities are not so frequent nor so specific as one finds in the most scholarly American studies. His argument is largely a philosophical interpretation of the great causal movements of modern history that made a clash of the nations inevitable.

Responsibilities are subordinated to causes by Professor Fester. Causes are universal. Responsibilities are limited by nationality. The question of responsibility can be raised only within a national community closely united by law. Louis XIV, *e. g.*, is responsible only to the French for overstraining absolute monarchy. Before a court of the world none of the great men of history could hold his own. National glory has always been won at the expense of other peoples. [If I understand Professor Fester rightly he holds that there is no such thing as moral responsibility before the bar of world opinion.]

The reason that Germany has *seemed* aggressive in modern times is because for the first time since the decay of the old empire the Germans have been in a position to repel the external pressure of their enemies. This defensive counter-pressure was mistaken by the outside world for aggressive imperialism. Moreover, the immense increase in the population of the earth since the Napoleonic wars has made conditions more explosive. In view of the fact that the foundation of the German Empire in 1871 occurred during this phase in the development of the human race, makes the opposition to Germany in the greater part of the world more intelligible.

Self-confidence, combined with narrowness, must always lead to an overestimation of self and an underestimation of the surrounding world. This was widespread in all circles in the Germany of William II, except with the military leaders.

It is, however, incomprehensible how the chief of the general staff, von Moltke, could go in his nobility of mind so far as to forbid the German military attache at St. Petersburg to make use of underhanded means to get information on Russian military affairs, Russia being the fuse of the universal explosive conditions. Thus our own observer was denied the means of ascertaining that already in May, 1914, the first Asiatic transports of troops were rolling westward.

Among the faults committed by German statesmen, under the influence of the Emperor, those of 1890 and 1902 are the greatest. In 1890 the German government gave notice to Russia that she would not renew the so-called re-insurance treaty (*Rückversicherungsvertrag*), with her. As a result Russia sought and found support in her alliance with France. In 1902 the German government did not accept the alliance with Great Britain offered her by Chamberlain. The result of this was that England sought and found an alliance with France and Russia.

Coming closer to 1914 Russia and Serbia become, in Professor Fester's story, the arch-conspirators. "Between the meeting of Napoleon III and Cavour

in Plombieres and the war-like New Year's address of the French Emperor less than six months elapsed. The war conspiracy (*Kriegsverschwörung*) of the Piedmont of the Southern Slavs (Serbia) with Russia lasted about five years. The promise of Russian support dates from the day of the annexation of Bosnia." (*Deutsche Rundschau*, Feb., 1921, p. 212.)

But Austria comes in for a share of the blame because she was so foolish as to furnish Russia, through the ultimatum to Serbia, with the pretext for war (*Kriegsgrund*) for which she had been waiting.

Germany and Austria should have made concessions in various places to gain time for strengthening their defensive position. Among other things Germany should have sacrificed her part of Samoa to secure the benevolent neutrality of the United States.

(Most of the above is not enclosed in quotation marks because it has been translated and condensed freely. It is believed, however, to be an accurate representation.)

It may be said of Professor Fester's article that perhaps the strongest point scored in it against England and France is that they have not yet opened their pre-war archives. This point must have its appeal to historians. The German and Austrian archives have been turned inside out. We probably have nearly everything from Russia that is not scattered or lost. To be sure England and France published their pre-war correspondence more freely than did the central powers. If they have nothing further to conceal, however, it would surely be an evidence of good faith if they would now open the doors of their secret archives freely to historians.

## II. PEACE TERMS

*Question:* What do professors of Modern History think and teach about the Treaty of Versailles?

a. It is most grossly contrary to the 14 points of Wilson and hardly ever in history has such a peace of violence been forced upon a civilized nation.

b. The Treaty of Versailles is a stain upon the history of mankind and at the same time a folly of "conquerors."

c. I consider the Treaty of Versailles a fraud practiced upon the German people, who had laid down arms on the basis of the 14 points and made themselves defenseless. These 14 points have been violated by the Allies in many cases and have partly been turned into their contrary. The treaty is unbearable for Germany. In many points it cannot be carried out. I teach that the German people must strive for a revision of this shameful treaty, and that this forms the most important task of German policy.

d. It is no treaty at all, but an extortion built upon a conscious lie as to the responsibility for the war.

e. From the German viewpoint the treaty is an attempt to make us the object of exploitation for the hostile great powers; from the viewpoint of the history of the world it is, however, an attempt to make permanent, in the interest of the conquerors, a momentary distribution of power. They may succeed in ruining the German nation by this so-called

peace, physically by depriving it of the milk cows, etc., also economically, and finally even psychically. But they will never succeed in making permanent the present distribution of power in the world. I base this confidence upon my consideration of the history of the world, although the demands of the Peace of Versailles surpass anything known in the past, and try to prevent not only the political but also the economic and even the simple human existence of the German people.

f. The Treaty of Versailles is the most barbarous and senseless peace which has even been concluded—a sign of the horrible political and moral degradation of the nations who are responsible for it. Its cancellation is a vital question not only for Germany, but for all Europe, and perhaps also for America.

g. The Peace of Versailles is called with us, by democrats of all shades, a *peace of violence*, a *breach of right*, which ought to be revised. This emanates merely from their (the democrats') bad conscience, because, if they did not make the Revolution, they favored it or at least did not prevent it, hoping thereby to serve their political aspirations and party interests. They are such political and historical ignoramuses (Ignoranten) as not to know that *a nation which makes itself voluntarily defenseless is despised by its enemies and exposes itself to their revenge. The Peace of Versailles is the retribution for the democratic campaign during the war, and for the revolution in the moment when the enemy stood before the gates.*

Whether the Peace of Versailles was wise in the interest of the conquerors is another question. It can probably be answered in the negative already today. We deserved it as a retribution for the 9th of November (day of the revolution), but we shall never recognize the Peace of Versailles as far as the separation of German populations from us is concerned. Our first task is to win them back and to create a national government, which our democracy has shown itself unable to form.

Our patriots take fresh courage since Briand and Lloyd George made it impossible for our weak representative to accede to the London demands. If our nation continues to recuperate its health as it has now commenced to do, *the Treaty of Versailles will never be carried out, and will be revised by the change of political conditions and German vigor, not by the League of Nations or similar fancies.*

—PROFESSOR JACOB, University of Tubingen.

(The following three answers are from teachers in the higher schools.)

h. The Treaty of Versailles is not valid because it rests upon the false assumption that Germany alone is responsible for the war. Its revision is the first aim of German policy.

i. A shameful document, drawn up by criminals who, under the patronage of the gross ignorance and the political unwisdom of Wilson, sought to condemn one of the leading civilized nations to slavery.

j. Even Simons has lately emphasized that the murderous Peace of Versailles rests upon a plea of

“guilty” extorted from us. It is lamentable that some of our Socialists are insisting, from party egoism, upon our responsibility for the war.

#### CONCLUSION

The replies quoted above state the views of only a few out of very many German teachers of history. Many were not addressed with the questionnaire and some refrained from replying to it. Some of the latter were so incensed over the present situation of Germany that they did not care to collaborate with her late enemies. Some were afraid that their view would be distorted.

The writer, while not entering into argument with the views expressed, must confess to a severe attack of depression at first sight of them. Where is the hope of reconciliation among the peoples, if the intellectual leaders in various countries are so far apart in their conclusions, *and in spirit?*

Out of the depths I cried to an American historian, older and wiser than I, and master of us all. I venture to close this contribution with a quotation from his reply, the more valuable because not written with any thought of publication

“To me the material is not discouraging, or not more than a little so. I should have expected a little more appreciation of the extent to which a militaristic state of mind existed in the German population. I have not however expected the German intellectuals to admit that the German nation was to blame for the war. I should expect that they would lay the blame on the other nations or on poor Bethmann-Hollweg. I think these expressions which you have elicited are more modern and candid, than you would have got in 1873 from French professors of that time respecting the then recent war. Indeed, I am old enough to remember the feelings of Southern men shortly after our Civil War. Nearly all of them were what it was customary in the North to call “unrepentant Rebels.” We in the North thought, in the late 60’s, that they ought to acknowledge that they had been wrong, and were surprised and vexed that they did not; but as I look at it now, it is not according to human nature that they should do so, either then or to this day. The most intelligent of them, twenty-seven years after the war, took the view of the matter which Professor Woodrow Wilson exhibited in his *Division and Reunion*. Of course, the analogy does not go on all fours, but I think it is cogent . . .

“Our way out of the present unhappy state of national feeling is not by hoping to convert the Germans to our view respecting responsibility for the war (though their government can properly be held responsible to pay up), but by hoping and working for the increase of those sentiments of common interest and those institutions of internationalism that will make all Europeans feel, forty years from now, as all Americans feel now respecting our Civil War, that, whoever was responsible for the conflict, or, more properly, however the responsibility may be divided, the best ideal has been that of a larger union of states, and of the co-operation of all in peaceful ways toward the best ends of civilization.”

# The General Course in United States History and the Liberal Arts College

BY PROFESSOR RALPH H. GABRIEL, YALE COLLEGE.

It is not too much to say that for the last half century the liberal arts college has been the most criticized of any of the parts of our educational machinery. It cannot be doubted that this criticism is evidence of both weakness and strength. As Americans have grown away from their former simple civilization based on agriculture and commerce and have developed the complex industrialism of the present, they have made new demands upon their educational institutions. Hosts of specialists have been required and the universities have been called upon to provide them. The result is to be seen in the technical and professional schools which bulk so large in the educational centres of the present. In the centre of such groups of modern vocational schools, however, stands the old liberal arts college with its ideals fundamentally unchanged by the great developments of the nineteenth century. Its *raison d'être* was and is to train men in mind and character for life in the commonwealth. Its education is not practical in the immediate sense. Its courses are not intended to show a man a better way to make a dollar. It is out of touch with the narrow materialism and extreme utilitarianism, that is so characteristic of the first quarter of the twentieth century, and that is reminiscent of the farmer who would not cultivate his corn unless he was sure to find a coin at the end of each row. The task of the liberal arts college of today is to train up a group among American citizens that will be able to envisage the problems of their lives and times with broader minds and sympathies and a clearer realization of the significance of events. It is in this group, not so much educated to do something as trained to be something, that the hope of the future in America lies.

I take it to be self-evident that such a group is to be trained in the class-room if at all in the college. And the courses which must bear the bulk of the responsibility are those which stand at the centre of the college course of study. A century ago the curriculum of the liberal arts college was built around the classics, so replete with life and so significant for the peoples who have built upon the foundations of the Greeks and Romans. Today the centre of the college course is to be found in the social sciences and English literature. It is both inevitable and proper that an institution whose aim is to train its students for life among men should centre its curriculum in the analysis of the institutions of men, the story of human development and the literature by which men have expressed themselves through the ages. In former days, no man could leave his *alma mater* without the stamp of the classics upon him; today, he carries with him the impress of sociology, economics, history and the best literature of our English-speaking forefathers. These latter disciples, therefore, have shouldered the responsibility which the humanists once bore. To say that a very great share of this

responsibility rests upon the basic general courses in these fields of study would be a truism. Upon success or failure here depends to a very large extent the success or failure of the liberal arts college in our generation. If the twentieth century college undergraduate is to be equipped in mind and character for life in the commonwealth, if he is to be fitted for that broad leadership which the complexities of modern life have made so necessary and so difficult, the basic courses in economics, history and English which are universally taken must assume a large share of the task. This is the point of view from which the general course in United States history must be envisaged.

What are the ways and means for realizing such an ideal? Since the beginning of United States history in the colleges a large proportion of the courses have been based upon text-books. There seems to be still a perpetual flood of such manuals to meet the ever-present demand. Edition follows edition and revision adds another chapter for each passing administration. The long-continued use in our colleges of the text-book method is evidence that there is usefulness in it. There can be no gainsaying the fact that the text-book imparts information. The manual is a compendium of facts, with a certain amount of interpretation, nicely done up in neat paragraphs of uniform size, which can be administered to the student like so many carefully compressed bouillon cubes. In its very nature, a successful text-book is one that is easy to digest—the author does the student's thinking for him. The mental training tends to become largely that of the memory. The fundamental weakness of the text-book method is that it over-stresses informational content and pays too little attention to method. Too frequently it fails to differentiate between giving the student a knowledge of history and an understanding of history. Efforts have been made to correct the obvious limitations of the text-book by the use of source material. The reaction has resulted in a number of different collections of documents for teaching purposes. The field to cover in the general course in United States history, is, however, so vast and the time so limited that source material has practically failed to do more than explain and illustrate the text. There is obviously no time for students to choose critically among sources or to put source material together synthetically. This is the exacting and time-consuming labor of the graduate student. It has no place in the basic general course.

If the aim of the college is to train its students in mind and character, it seems a logical conclusion that method should take equal rank with content in the college course. The course in United States history must teach the facts of our national story and it must aim to give an understanding of our development that will bring out the character of our people and our

institutions and that will tend to break down the provincialism of section and of class. This is the "Americanization" toward which we may well strive. But, besides this, the general course must compel its students to analyze writings dealing with the life and affairs of our people. The student must promptly be disillusioned regarding the infallibility of the text-book. He must be brought to do his reading critically and to consider it as, at best, one man's opinion. Moreover, he must receive constant training in choosing the more important from the less important points; he must learn to discard for himself the details which are not worth remembering. One of the main functions of the reading in the general course is to train the student in analysis and in the development of the critical faculty. The function of the daily or weekly test and the class-room recitation is to give him training in synthesis—putting together in clear and logical form the important facts and points of view that he has selected from his reading. Throughout his later life, as a citizen of the republic, he will be compelled to analyze and synthesize the same kind of material dealing with the same kind of problems that he has met in his history course. Is it wise, in view of this, to put the facts of history predigested into his mind?

But how is the problem of reading to be worked out? The acid test is the turning of theory into practice. The body of experience developed in the general course in United States history in Yale College may be of value in both its failures and in its successes. For many years past it has been the custom in this course (which meets three times a week and only in small recitation groups) to use a quite extensive list of books, most of which the students were requested to buy. This is a variation of the so-called library method. The recent increase in cost has made it desirable to put ten copies of each of these books on the reserve shelf in the library thus relieving the poorer students of the necessity of purchase. It has been the plan of the course to use a separate study for each important period in our national history. A few titles will give an idea of the way in which the problem has been worked out: Professor Andrews' *The Colonial Period*; Mr. Lecky's *American Revolution*; Professor Johnson's *Union and Democracy*; Professor Farrand's *Framing of the Constitution*; Professor Ford's *Alexander Hamilton*; Professor Turner's *Rise of the New West*; Mr. Schurz's *Henry Clay*, (vol. II.), Lord Charnwood's *Abraham Lincoln*, et cetera. Entire books are used instead of selected chapters from many books, to enable the student to get fully the author's points of view. In these books from forty to fifty pages are assigned for a lesson, totaling between one hundred twenty and one hundred fifty pages per week. The student is tested on his understanding of the essentials of the assignment by a ten-minute written paper at the beginning of each recitation. The meeting is then given up to discussion. When so many books written from so many different points of view are studied, the continuity of the course and its logical unfolding must be in the class-room recitations. It

has been the experience of the past that the best results have been obtained not by lecturing but by a joint discussion led by the instructor in which he has made the students assist him in the creation of a lecture which they could take down in their note-books. Upon these note-books the undergraduates must depend mainly in their preparation for the final examinations.

In view of the exceptional opportunities now about to be opened, the construction of the course is to be materially modified in the coming year in the hope that the changes will enable it to meet more fully its obligations to the college and to the students. For the present readings will be substituted about thirty volumes of the *Chronicles of America*, the assignments to be by the week, one volume per week. Most of the Colonial volumes will be omitted for lack of time. The student will be required to keep a note-book and brief each book as he reads it. This will give him constant practice in analysis. Each week he will write a half-hour test on the book of the week. This will give him constant training and practice in synthesis. The two recitations following the test and the remainder of the time on the test day will be taken up with a development of the period covered by the book. The points of view of so many books coupled with that developed in the recitations will tend constantly to train the critical faculties and must forever dispel the idea of the infallibility of the text-book. It is believed that the mastery of such a course will give the under-graduate something of the mind training that the liberal arts college must provide. By the avoidance of the use of a manual on the one hand, and the lecture on the other, both of which do the thinking for the student, it is hoped that the development of intellectual mollicoddles will be reduced to the minimum. By putting into the hands of the under-graduate the story of the United States, as interpreted by many able men, it is believed that he will get a glimpse of the genius of our people that will be of use to him in his life among them.

It cannot be denied that a course such as the one outlined has weaknesses. Perhaps its most difficult problem is to do what the text-book does best, namely, maintain a continuously unfolding story. This narrative must be the foundation upon which are built the economic and social aspects of our national development. In such a course, therefore, where a large number of authors are read, the burden of maintaining the continuity rests primarily upon the instructor. A syllabus is necessary, but will only partially solve the problem. Another difficulty is the cost to the student if he buys the books. This can be obviated by assessing him a fee for the use of the books which are then kept in the library. This annually recurring fee will enable the instructor to buy the books and the assembling of them in the library will materially cut down the number required. Furthermore, the student's book bill will be reduced to a small item. Where more than fifteen books are used during the year the fee seems to be the only practicable method of financing the course.

If the liberal arts colleges stand today at the bar of public judgment, so do the courses they offer. The justification for the non-vocational college must be in the ideals underlying its instruction and the success with which they are carried out. The arts college must not give way to the materialism of our

generation. Upon its steadfastness depends the future of our civilization. In such an age the instructor's great creative work must be in the lives of the students who pass before him. His main task, after all, is not the teaching of history, but of men.

## A Method of Procedure for a Problem Lesson in History

BY REGINA ZIMMERMANN, OF CHICAGO PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

The development of self-activity on the part of the student is the keynote to many of our newer methods of teaching school subjects. History, with its endless litany of rarely-changing facts, its smug ready-made conclusions, and its tendency to over-emphasize the past and dodge the complexity of present-day situations, has fought shy of this soul-stirring process, and endeavored to dally with the lotus blossom eaters, while its more energetic relatives pushed valiantly ahead.

According to one high-school teacher, the functional value of subjects is being measured today, and unless history comes up to the standard, it will sputter out into oblivion like the fast-dying twins, Latin and Greek. This writer asserts that the fault is not in the subject, but in the method of presentation. The factual and interpretative methods are being used rather than the laboratory, and the mental stage of development of the student of history is overlooked. While data and conditions are variable in each historical situation, and only a record of facts is attainable, nevertheless, it is just as possible to deduce principles in the social sciences as in the natural sciences. This laboratory method resolves itself into a form of the project method so frequently advocated as "the thing" by modern educators.

A great many books and articles have been written on this scheme of procedure, and a great deal of haggling has gone on as to whether it shall be called the "problem" or the "project" method, or both, or neither. The dominant idea, according to Branom, is that the method should be one of constantly planned activity. McMurray also emphasizes the "doing" side, while both authors consider the organization of knowledge around a central topic as an essential feature of this type of lesson. Thus the latter defines the project as a "strongly organized body of information, based, with a definite purpose, upon an important center of practical knowledge. It is the intellectual formulation and mastery of a problematic situation, as a preparation for its practical execution." Branom, emphasizing to a greater degree the method of organization, defines it as a "problem of considerable complexity arising out of a situation and involving the consideration, interpretation, and evaluation of much material for the solution." Both of these authors consider the "problem" as a by-product of the "project." The latter usually involves physical activity, while the former is a purely mental process. Examples of both kinds under

the caption "projects" can be found in the "1919 Report of Progress of the Duluth Public Schools."

Though the title for the method is the subject for dispute, its value is never questioned. "The problems and methods of life become the problems and methods of the school." Knowledge is reorganized around a practical life center and thus the non-essentials are eliminated. Self-activity and initiative are developed in the student, and interest and effort are aroused. Independent thinking is stimulated, the child learns to compare, evaluate, understand, and conclude. The rational memory is trained, the student learns to relate and group facts, to remember them because they are of importance to himself. Thus the problem is used in assignments, it becomes a method of review, it may be a challenge of a statement in a text, or a worthy topic for debate.

Some very practical suggestions for the use of the method are found in the "Colorado War-Modified Course of Study," a brief outline of which follows:

### I. A SUGGESTED PROCEDURE

1. Arrangement of the problem
2. Purpose of the problem made apparent to the pupil through preparatory discussion in assignment of the work.
3. Method of solution sought by the pupils
4. Criticism and examination of the procedure
5. Judgment of value of final results
6. Appreciation, or satisfaction with results

### II. SUCCESSIVE STEPS IN SOLVING THE PROBLEM

1. Gain information on the problem
2. Make selection of material that applies
3. Organize the material that is selected
4. After sufficient evidence is collected, draw conclusions.

The problem should be, if possible, a result of class discussion. The assignment should include a clear statement of the problem and definite directions for the finding of material. During the lesson period following, there should be an opportunity for discussion by all the members of the class, in which additional information or explanation is supplied by the teacher. After sufficient material is gathered, a conclusion is stated; but it should be the purpose of the teacher to make it the pupils' own.

A plan similar in many points has been devised by R. M. Tryon of The University of Chicago. The method for the Junior High School includes four points: (1) Stating and defining the problem. (2) Suggestions as to its solution and their evaluation.



(8) Collecting, tabulating, and organizing material.  
 (4) Drawing conclusions based on the material. The suggestions for solutions should come before any reading is done; they should be tabulated as given and later evaluated. In the third step, reading and investigation in the text and other sources of information are in order. A slightly different scheme is suggested for the Senior High School, and includes the following points. (1) Stating and defining the problem. (2) Suggestions on the part of the pupils as to the best way of approach to a solution of the problem and their evaluation. (3) Gathering the data by the method thus determined upon as a result of the discussion. (4) Organizing the data gathered and drawing conclusions from it. The originator of this method is under obligations to Professor S. C. Parker, and a lesson based on the plan for the Senior High School has been worked out by Mr. J. M. McConnell in "Parker's Exercises for Methods of Teaching in High Schools."

By combining some of the steps for the solution from each scheme I have worked out a plan perhaps best suited for my particular problem lesson. I have also added a step of "appreciation" or "satisfaction" suggested in the "Colorado Course." This is secured through verification of the conclusion reached. In the third step I have given an information outline which probably is needlessly lengthy, but eliminations can be made by the use of any good text. References for students and teacher are suggested at the end of the outline. The lesson was given as prepared in a grammar grade class of the Louisiana State Normal School. The results were all that could be desired, each step worked out according to the plan, and the children were keenly interested, answered intelligently, arrived at their own conclusions, and secured keener motivation for the study of their next topic. An outline of the lesson follows:

#### I. STATING AND DEFINING THE PROBLEM

##### 1. Statement of the problem

A. "Were the French or English better suited in the final analysis to win supremacy in the New World?"

##### 2. Definition of some of the terms

A. By "French" and "English" are meant the colonists of those countries in America.

B. "Final analysis," one of the countries may have had the advantage in the beginning; but which possessed the qualities that make for ultimate victory?

C. "Supremacy in the New World," leadership and control of territory in America, not Europe.

#### II. Suggestions as to the Ways of Approach and Solution of the Problem, and Evaluation by the Class.

##### 1. Suggestions for attacking the problem

A. Study the condition of the two groups of colonies previous to the Seven Years War—see which was better prepared to fight.

B. Study the method, motives, etc., of colonization and the effect upon the type of colonists.

C. Study the characteristics of the two classes of colonists, and the effect upon their fighting ability.

##### 2. Evaluation

A. Elimination of (c) because of its inclusion in (b).

3. Points to be discussed as a result of the suggestions.

A. Location

B. Population

C. Government

D. Religion

E. Motives for Colonization

F. Manner of Settling

G. Industries

H. Relation with the Indians.

#### III. Collecting and Organizing Material in the Form of an Informational Outline Worked Out Co-Operatively by the Class.

#### OUTLINE

##### I. Location

###### 1. French

A. Located along the waterways of Canada, the Mississippi, and Gulf Coast. Territory twenty times as great as that of English.

B. Location of Quebec—strategic from military standpoint, but because of ice floes in St. Lawrence difficult to get in touch with mother country.

C. Effect—Large territory to protect, and distance from base of supplies.

###### 2. English

A. Compact territory along Atlantic Coast from Maine to Florida and back to Alleghenies.

B. Effect—Comparative ease of protection and access to mother country.

##### II. Population

###### 1. French

A. People satisfied with home conditions, not fond of colonization.

B. Effect

a. Only adventurous type induced to migrate.

b. Little family life or increase in population.

###### 2. English

A. Immigration due to better economic conditions in the New World, and religious and political persecution at home.

B. Effect

a. All nationalities were represented, families were brought and a stable population resulted.

b. English population twenty times that of French.

##### III. Government

###### 1. French

A. Autocracy—governor assisted by intendant and bishop, all three appointed by Crown. The intendant, a check on the governor and in control of finances. The bishop in

charge of church affairs. A body of twelve resident councilors appointed by Crown was associated with them. Absolutely no local government.

**B. Effect**

a. Leaders acted as a unit, centralization developed.

**2. English**

A. Three types of government, royal, proprietary, and republican. Each had governor and Council appointed by Crown or proprietor. Popular assembly elected by people. Governor could veto its acts, but control assured assembly because of its taxing powers.

B. Effect—Colonies were disunited and self-centered. Difficult to awaken them to a sense of common danger. Resisted governor and refused to grant money and supplies.

**IV. Religion**

A. Only Roman Catholics tolerated.

B. Effect—French Huguenots who were forbidden to settle in Louisiana migrated to Carolina. Population decreased.

**2. English**

A. All religions tolerated to a greater or less degree.

**B. Effect**

a. Population increased

b. Motive for colonization provided.

**V. Motives for Colonization**

**1. French**

**A. Motives**

a. To derive wealth from fur trade

b. Christianize the natives

c. Increase glory of France by exploration.

**B. Effect**

a. Type of settlers—"coureurs de bois"

b. Friendly relations with Indians.

c. Extensive territory.

**2. English**

**A. Motives**

a. To escape religious and political persecution.

b. To better economic conditions.

B. Effect—Permanent settlements created.

**VI. Manner of Settling**

**1. French**

A. Established military and trading posts along great waterways. Weak because of sparse population and distance apart.

B. Effect—Difficult to guard territory because of lack of homes. No incentive to fight.

**2. English**

A. Plantation the unit of life in the South. Charleston an example of town life. Compactness of settlement in New England and the Middle Colonies.

B. Effect—Protection made possible. English fought to preserve their homes.

**VII. Industries**

**1. French**

A. No manufacturing, a little agriculture and fishing. Much hunting, fighting and fur-trading.

B. Effect—Unstable population, new discoveries, increased territory. Men made hardy, fighting ability bettered. Relation with Indians more friendly.

**2. English**

EDITOR'S NOTE: The remaining part of the analysis is omitted for want of space.

**REFERENCES FOR THE CLASS**

Eggleston, *Our First Century*

Eggleston, *Life in the Eighteenth Century*

Parkman, *Rivals for America*

Jenks, *When America Was New*

Smith, *The Colonies*

Baestow, *The Colonies and the Revolution*

Hart, *Source Book of American History*.

**REFERENCES FOR THE TEACHER**

James and Sanford, *American History*, pp. 111-118; 128-141.

Elson, *History of the United States*, pp. 174-178; 197-216.

Parkman, *Old Regime*, pp. 461-468.

Parkman, *Half Century of Conflict*, pp. 63-77.

Greene, *Provincial America*, pp. 106-118.

Thwaites, *France in America*, pp. 124-142; 156-168.

**IV. Classifying the Data Gathered in III and Drawing Conclusions**

**1. English better prepared through**

A. Location

B. Population

C. Religion

D. Motives for Colonization

E. Manner of settling

**2. French better prepared through**

A. Government

B. Relations with the Indians.

**3. Effect of industries was about equalized**

4. Conclusion—The French seemingly had the advantage at first; but greater unity among the English colonists and adjustment of the Indian relations, joined with their other good points would prove they had the "staying qualities" to win supremacy in the New World.

**V. Appreciation of the results through satisfaction**

1. Verification of their conclusion seen by comparison with the opinion of some authority or a study of the results of the Seven Years War.

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Freeland, *Modern Elementary School Practice*

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Webb, "Increasing the Functional Value of History by the Use of the Problem Method of Presentation," *Historical Outlook*, VII, pp. 155ff.

# Standardizing Library Work and Library Equipment for History in Secondary Schools<sup>1</sup>

BY THE COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION<sup>2</sup>

*Procedure of the committee.*—The Mississippi Valley Historical Association appointed the present committee in 1918. From the beginning, the committee has acted on the principle that if its recommendations were to be of any real value they must be based upon facts. Accordingly, after delimiting its task as a study primarily of the existing facilities for, and the prevailing practices in, collateral reading in American history and modern European history, the committee prepared a questionnaire for the purpose of discovering (1) the history books available in high-school libraries; (2) the custom in duplicating titles; (3) the books found most useful in these two fields by teachers and pupils; (4) the amount of money expended for history books; and (5) methods of checking collateral reading.

Thirteen states in the Mississippi Valley were included in the survey, each state being represented by one member of the committee. The questionnaires were circulated within each state by the local member of the committee, who, in most instances, also tabulated wholly or in part the returns for his state and forwarded them to the chairman for final tabulation.

The committee hoped to secure returns from each of the accredited or approved high schools in these states. Although this hope was not realized, a total of 520 secondary schools was heard from. These schools are of all sorts—public high schools, college preparatory schools, laboratory schools, military academies, township high schools; by far the greater number, however, are public secondary institutions. They range in size from 16 pupils to 3,289 pupils; most of them contain from 200 to 600 pupils. They are located in communities whose populations vary from those of mere villages to those of cities like Cleveland, Milwaukee, Detroit and Chicago. Although limited in number, they may for these reasons be regarded as representative of the Middle West.

*Character of the returns.*—The questionnaires returned were in most instances filled out by the teacher of history, usually by the head of the history

department; in the remaining cases they were answered by the principal, the superintendent, or the librarian.

As may be anticipated, the returns differ widely in value. Some show signs of haste; some are incomplete; some contain glaring inaccuracies and inconsistencies; and a considerable number have answers which are so vague as to be of little value. But this sort is not the rule. In general, the questionnaires seem to have been filled out with care and contain unmistakable evidences of thought and time in their preparation.

*Year in which American history is studied.*—From the returns it appears that American history is usually studied in the senior year of high school or in the junior and senior years. Of the 46 schools reporting from Wisconsin, for example, 38 have American history in the senior year of high school, 8 in the junior and senior years. In Ohio, 50 of the 59 schools reporting have American history in the senior year, 6 have it in the senior and junior years, 1 in the freshman year, and 2 fail to state in which year it is given. In a considerable number of the schools in Iowa and Missouri and, to a less degree, in those of Illinois, there seems to be a tendency to offer American history only in the third year, 17 of the 54 Iowa schools, 9 of the 84 Missouri schools, and 9 of the 126 Illinois schools so reporting.

*History texts.*—According to the returns, the texts in most favor in the states surveyed are, with the number of schools using them, as follows: Muzzey, *American History*, 137; McLaughlin, *American Nation*, 87; Hart, *American History*, 68; Fite, *United States*, 66; James and Sanford, *American History*, 56; West, *American History*, 31; others are occasionally mentioned, but none are given as many as 25 times. In European history, selections rank thus: Robinson and Beard, *Outlines of European History*, Part II, 153; West, *Modern World*, 121; Robinson, *History of Western Europe*, 53; Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 40; Webster, *Modern Times*, 39; Myers, *Medieval and Modern History*, 29; occasionally other texts are mentioned, but in no case are they given as often as 25 times.

*Amount of collateral reading required.*—In answer to the question, "How much collateral reading is usually done per week? Indicate by pages or otherwise," it is not uncommon to find such expressions as "not much," "hard to get teachers to assign collateral," "not definite," "as much as can," "some," "very little," "library so inadequate can have no collateral reading," "not estimated in pages." On the other hand, a large proportion of the schools report from 10 to 30 pages of collateral reading in American history every week. To quote the figures in Ohio, we find that of the 59 schools reporting, 23 require from 10 to 30 pages weekly; 2, from 20 or

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from the *School Review*, Vol. XXIX, pp. 135-150 (Feb. 1921).

<sup>2</sup> The committee: Howard C. Hill, University High School, University of Chicago, Chairman; Alma Penrose, Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.; E. M. Violette, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo.; R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago; Carl E. Pray, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; Margaret Mitchell, University of Oklahoma; Bessie L. Pierce, University of Iowa; Mrs. C. S. Paine, Lincoln, Neb.; Frank E. Melvin, University of Kansas; Gertrude Ligon, Okolona High School, Okolona, Ark.; A. H. Sanford, State Normal School, LaCrosse, Wis.; O. H. Williams, State Department of Public Instruction, Indiana; Walter L. Fleming, Vanderbilt University; A. H. Hirsch, Ohio Wesleyan University.

The report will appear in greater detail, including the questionnaire, in the *Proceedings* of the Association for 1919-20. Inquiries or suggestions concerning the report should be addressed to the chairman.

25 pages to 50 pages; 4, 50 pages or more; 1, 6 pages; 1, 5 pages; while the 28 other schools either give no information on this point or use such vague expressions as "difficult to estimate," "varies," and "not much." In Wisconsin 28 of the 46 schools report from 10 to 30 pages weekly; 6, from 15 to 75 pages; 1, "one and one-half to two hours"; while the remaining 11 are vague or silent on the point, report "very little," or say "below 10 pages."

Among the individual answers possessing interest are those of a Nebraska school which reports its history study as "all library work," an Indiana school which requires "one period daily in Reference Room," a school in Kansas which requires "100 pages weekly," and an Illinois school which requires 25 pages a week the first semester and 50 to 100 pages a week the second semester.

A considerable number of teachers do not require the reading of a certain number of pages weekly or monthly. Says one, "Work was not assigned by the week but by the subject." Says another, "I have found the requirement of a certain number of pages unsatisfactory. I assign individual topics." Says a third, "I place much responsibility on the students. Monthly topics are assigned and no references given." From a principal of a school enrolling four hundred pupils this note of discouragement:

For many years we prided ourselves on our good historical library and for the amount of collateral reading that we appeared to extract from our pupils. But during the last five years, the pressure of other collateral activities of the social, civic, and economic order has made collateral reading impossible. Also athletics, the mania for the movies and for recreational activities, all encouraged by the press and the public, have tended to discourage reading to the point of disappearance. Collateral reading, although recommended and pressed for years, is, with the majority of our pupils, a failure.

*The checking of collateral reading.*—The methods of checking collateral reading most frequently listed in the returns are the written test, notebook, oral quiz, recitation, card report, and special report given orally or in writing. The usual report form is a printed card or slip to be turned in weekly, sometimes daily. On this form the pupil is asked to give, in addition to his name and the date, the author, title, and pages read during the week or day; occasionally, the topic on which the reading has been done must be stated; sometimes the number of minutes spent in collateral reading is asked for. In certain schools the report card also provides for a summary or list of the points not found in the text.

The following extracts from the returns are indicative of other methods teachers employ to check up collateral reading:

"This term," writes one, "each student has been asked to read one hour per week on a certain assigned topic; to report in class orally, or to hand in a brief written report. Besides that, each one read a biography of some famous American and wrote a review of it following an assigned outline."

"For American history classes," says another, "we have a conference on Fridays, and each one shares the best things in the week's reading. Some read more than a thousand pages." "I have followed the plan of assigning individual topics and calling for reports in class," writes a third, "allowing the other members to take notes, and holding them responsible also." Other methods are: "Oral book reports on approved books"; "a brief of the book read"; "one-page written reports of the week's reading"; "written answers to questions"; "floor talks"; "term papers"; "short summaries"; "special written tests"; "short papers on assigned topics"; "one question in every test."

"My reading assignments," writes one teacher in an especially suggestive comment, "are made from day to day and are made a part of the lesson assignment. They deal only with specific points that throw light on the lesson, are definite and short. They are discussed in recitation in their logical connection. I have tried the method of requiring a certain number of pages of reading a week and have abandoned it, frankly admitting that it does not accomplish the purposes sought. In my experience, such a plan does not really function in college even."

*Money expended for history books.*—The money expended annually for history books in the different states and among different schools in the same state varies widely. In Illinois, in the schools giving information on this point whose pupils number less than 500, the amount expended every year varies from 0 to a maximum of \$200; to this statement there is one exception, for one school of 460 pupils reports a yearly expenditure for books on history of from \$400 to \$500. In the schools containing between 500 and 1,500 pupils the figures run from 0 to \$400 annually, while the few schools which number over 1,500 pupils report an expenditure of from \$30 to \$300.

In Wisconsin the money expended for history books in the schools which reported runs from 0 to \$100; a considerable number give \$50 as the annual sum. In Kansas such expenditures vary from "none for years" to \$500 annually. In Ohio the amount spent each year for history varies, according to the returns, from 0 to \$400 annually. In the schools which spend money for books the range is from \$10 to \$200 where the pupils number less than 500; and from "very little" to \$400 where the number of pupils exceeds 500. Eight schools reported "none" or "very little"; 22 either gave no information or used such vague expressions as "not much," "indefinite," "no set amount," and "varies."

One Ohio school reports that it "depends on city library and teachers' private libraries." An Illinois teacher writes, "Personally between fifty and one hundred dollars, including my own duplicated extracts." This comment is almost equaled by a Michigan teacher who states, "I find history coming last when money is to be spent. I have filled in this

year with my own books." Of the 30 Indiana schools which reported on this question, 6 spend no money or "very little"; 6 spend from \$10 to \$15; and the remaining schools say the amount varies from year to year, and name sums which range from \$10 to \$225.

In the amount of money spent for history books, Oklahoma appears to be the banner state among those surveyed. In schools of less than 500 pupils the range is from \$20 to \$300; in schools between 500 and 1,500, it runs from \$150 to \$300; and one school of more than 2,000 pupils reports an expenditure of \$500 annually.

*Practice in duplicating books.*—Practice in duplicating books varies widely. In more than two-thirds of the Missouri and the Nebraska secondary schools which reported, titles are duplicated; and in one-half or more of the schools which sent returns from Indiana, Wisconsin, and Kansas a similar practice prevails. Of the 93 Oklahoma schools included in the report, 15 state that it is their practice to duplicate books, 12 say they do not duplicate, and 6 either give no information on the subject or answer in an indefinite fashion. Of 57 Michigan schools, 20 duplicate titles, 18 do not, and 19 fail to state their practice or give such indefinite answers as "depends," "some," and "when necessary." In Illinois the proportion is about the same; of the 126 schools which reported, 50 purchase duplicates, 85 do not, 22 ignore the question, and 19 give such answers as "not often," "not entirely," "partly," "seldom," "if possible," and "sometimes."

In Iowa, on the other hand, the prevailing practice seems adverse to duplication; 17 out of 54 schools report that they do not duplicate titles and 6 reply, "not often," "no special policy," "not always," "not much," and "partly"; only 12—less than one-fourth of the schools—give an affirmative answer. A similar situation prevails apparently in Minnesota; out of 25 schools, 7 report duplication, while 12 reply in the negative. The prevailing usage in Ohio, likewise, is adverse to duplication; only 13 of the 59 schools which reported practice it, whereas 22 do not observe it. From the figures at hand it appears, therefore, that about two-thirds of the schools duplicate the books they find most useful while the remainder follow the practice of most libraries and merely multiply titles.

In the schools in which books are duplicated the number of copies bought ranges from one for every two pupils taking the subject to one for every thirty pupils. One Illinois school with a student body of 1,200, it is true, reports that it purchases one copy for every pupil, and then adds, "when not possible, then for every two or three." Evidently, this school has never found it possible to secure a copy for every pupil, since elsewhere in the questionnaire it appears that, while 103 pupils take American history, 40 copies is the largest number of duplicates of any one book in the school library.

In most of the schools the common practice seems to be to buy one copy for every three to seven pupils.

Of the 15 Oklahoma schools which duplicate books, 11, for example, purchase them in such quantities. Twelve of the 24 Wisconsin schools which duplicate books follow a similar practice. Like results appear in the returns from Michigan, Nebraska, Arkansas, Iowa, Indiana, and Illinois.

*Selection of history books.*—In the selection of history books, the practice in many schools is to co-operate with the other departments, especially with the English department. In Oklahoma all of the schools which reported, except two, state that they co-operate with other departments, usually with the department of English; of the two exceptions, one reports that selections are made by "librarian with faculty," and the other says, "English department will not co-operate this year." In Wisconsin, sixteen of the forty-six schools reporting state they, too, select books by co-operating with the other departments, but fourteen schools do not report any co-operation. In some cases, selections of books are made by the "high-school librarian," "school board," "principal," "superintendent," and frequently by the individual history teachers. In these cases, it is interesting and encouraging to notice that in many instances selections are based on "book reviews in periodicals," "university lists," "state courses of study," "Tryon's list," and "lists of historical societies."

*Relations with public libraries.*—The relations of the schools with the public libraries in their communities are instructive and suggestive. In every state except Arkansas, Tennessee, and Oklahoma, the majority of the schools make use of the public library, and the schools reporting from Arkansas and Tennessee are too few to warrant any conclusions. In an encouraging number of cases the public librarians indicate a willingness to co-operate with the schools by keeping books on reserve for high-school pupils and by loaning books to the high school. Usually such books are furnished in quantities of less than ten. In a few instances books are loaned in quantities "up to fifty" and even "one hundred copies." In a number of schools the school library is a branch of the public library.

*The most useful history books.* In outlining its work, the committee felt it could do nothing of greater service than to discover the books which teachers of history have found most valuable for high-school use. With this in view the following question was included in the questionnaire: "Name at least ten books, if possible, which you have found most useful for (a) intensive reading (study or information); (b) extensive reading (atmosphere or enjoyment, reading as distinguished from study). The list for extensive reading should include the books which are most popular with students." Books in the fields of American history and modern European history were asked for.

In the list below are given, in the order of their utility as shown by the returns, all the books in the field of American history which were mentioned thirty or more times as best for intensive reading (study or information):

AMERICAN HISTORY BOOKS USEFUL FOR  
INTENSIVE READING

Author	Title	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Hart, <i>The Formation of the Union</i> .....		123
2. Wilson, <i>Division and Reunion</i> .....		122
3. Thwaites, <i>The Colonies</i> .....		112
4. Fiske, <i>The Critical Period of American History</i> .....		97
5. Hart, <i>American History as Told by Contemporaries</i> .....		81
6. Elson, <i>History of the United States</i> .....		58
7. Bassett, <i>Short History of the United States</i> .....		53
8. Channing, <i>Students' History of the United States</i> .....		53
9. McMaster, <i>History of the People of the United States</i> .....		51
10. Burgess, <i>The Middle Period</i> .....		51
11. Hart, <i>American Nation Series</i> .....		49
12. Bogart, <i>Economic History of the United States</i> .....		46
13. Rhodes, <i>History of the United States</i> .....		42
14. Schouler, <i>History of the United States</i> .....		42
15. Coman, <i>Industrial History of the United States</i> .....		40
16. Walker, <i>The Making of the Nation</i> .....		37
17. Muzze, <i>Readings in American History</i> .....		34
18. McLaughlin, <i>Readings in American History</i> .....		33
19. Muzze, <i>American History</i> .....		33
20. Wilson, <i>History of the American People</i> .....		32
21. Fiske, <i>Discovery of America</i> .....		32
22. Bryce, <i>The American Commonwealth</i> .....		31
23. Morse, <i>American Statesmen Series</i> .....		30

\*In 22 instances Hart's *Epochs of American History* was named. These were all credited to Hart's *Formation of the Union*, but the teachers who thus reported may have had in mind the entire series of three volumes; following the same practice, the questionnaire which mentioned Thwaites, *Epochs of American History*, was credited to Thwaites's *The Colonies*, and the one which named Wilson's *Epochs of American History* was added to Wilson's *Division and Reunion*.

Wide disagreement appeared as to the best books in American history for extensive reading (atmosphere or enjoyment, or reading as distinguished from study). In many instances the extensive references were practically as heavy as the intensive; one teacher, in fact, declared there was and should be no difference between the two. Nothing could show more clearly the need for attention to this neglected phase of history teaching. The following list includes all books mentioned fifteen or more times:

BOOKS USEFUL FOR EXTENSIVE READING IN  
AMERICAN HISTORY

Author	Title	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Roosevelt, <i>Winning of the West</i> .....		58
2. Hart, <i>American History as Told by Contemporaries</i> .....		46
3. Churchill, <i>The Crisis</i> .....		39
4. Morse, <i>American Statesmen Series</i> .....		36
5. Elson, <i>Sidelights on American History</i> .....		32
6. Earle, <i>Home Life in Colonial Days</i> .....		23
7. Fiske, <i>The Critical Period of American History</i> .....		23
8. McMaster, <i>History of the People of the United States</i> .....		23
9. Sparks, <i>Expansion of the American People</i> .....		23
10. Fiske, <i>Old Virginia and Her Neighbors</i> .....		22
11. Sparks, <i>Men Who Made the Nation</i> .....		19
12. Hart, <i>American Nation Series</i> .....		18
13. Parkman, <i>The Oregon Trail</i> .....		18
14. Rhodes, <i>History of the United States</i> .....		18
15. Parkman, <i>Works</i> .....		18
16. Fiske, <i>The Discovery of America</i> .....		17
17. Hart, <i>Source Book of American History</i> .....		16
18. Fiske, <i>American Revolution</i> .....		15
19. Wilson, <i>History of the American People</i> .....		15

The leading books for intensive reading in European history according to the returns are ranked below in the order of their utility as indicated in the questionnaires. All books mentioned as many as 25 times are included. Since some teachers limited their selection to works dealing with modern European history (the intention of the committee), while others

included those treating various phases of the history of the last fifteen hundred years, the results are not so valuable as in the case of American history where the question was interpreted with greater unanimity.

BOOKS USEFUL FOR INTENSIVE READING IN  
EUROPEAN HISTORY

Author	Title	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Robinson, <i>Readings in European History</i> .....		98
2. Hazen, <i>Europe Since 1815</i> .....		93
3. Robinson and Beard, <i>Development of Modern Europe</i> .....		58
4. Green, <i>Short History of the English People</i> .....		54
5. Hazen, <i>Modern European History</i> .....		42
6. Robinson and Beard, <i>Readings in Modern European History</i> .....		42
7. Henderson, <i>Short History of Germany</i> .....		40
8. Cheyney, <i>Social and Industrial History of England</i> .....		36
9. Lowell, <i>Eve of the French Revolution</i> .....		33
10. Mathews, <i>French Revolution</i> .....		32
11. Adams, <i>Growth of the French Nation</i> .....		30
12. Hayes, <i>Political and Social History of Modern Europe</i> .....		29
13. Cheyney, <i>Short History of England</i> .....		28
14. Robinson and Beard, <i>Outlines of European History, Part II</i> .....		28
15. Schwill, <i>Political History of Modern Europe</i> .....		27
16. Cheyney, <i>Readings in English History</i> .....		26
17. Robinson, <i>History of Western Europe</i> .....		25

It is worthy of note that no book in this list deals with the history of commerce. Day's *History of Commerce* was mentioned only five times; Herrick's *History of Commerce and Industry* but six times.

The list for extensive reading in European history is very unsatisfactory. Many of the questionnaires included no returns on the subject, and there was wide variation among those that did report. It is, perhaps, worth noting that Abbott, Muhlbach, and Henty received frequent mention; it will also be seen that more than one-third of the list consists of historical novels. The tabulation includes all books given as many as ten times.

BOOKS FOR EXTENSIVE READING IN  
EUROPEAN HISTORY

Author	Title	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Dickens, <i>Tale of Two Cities</i> .....		36
2. Robinson, <i>Readings in European History</i> .....		33
3. Carlyle, <i>French Revolution</i> .....		22
4. Scott, <i>Ivanhoe</i> .....		19
5. Green, <i>Short History of the English People</i> .....		19
6. Lowell, <i>Eve of the French Revolution</i> .....		18
7. Hugo, <i>Les Misérables</i> .....		15
8. Cheyney, <i>Social and Industrial History of England</i> .....		15
9. Robinson and Beard, <i>Readings in Modern European History</i> .....		14
10. Davis, <i>Roots of the War</i> .....		13
11. Scott, <i>Kenilworth</i> .....		13
12. Hazen, <i>Europe Since 1815</i> .....		13
13. Mathews, <i>French Revolution</i> .....		12
14. Johnston, <i>Napoleon</i> .....		10
15. Davis, <i>Friar of Wittenberg</i> .....		10
16. Scott, <i>Talisman</i> .....		10

*Conclusions of the committee.*—The conclusions and recommendations of the committee, in the light of this survey, are as follows:

1. Effective history teaching is impossible without an adequate supply of collateral reading material. This conclusion is based on the fact that there are certain fundamental values in the study of history

that cannot be attained without a large amount of collateral reading. These values are the stimulation or creation of a taste for historical literature; a knowledge of how to use books; an acquaintance with the different forms in which historical materials are recorded; and the cultivation of an independent and critical attitude toward modern social, economic, and political problems.

To attain these ends it is necessary for pupils to study certain topics with greater thoroughness than the text permits; to write brief historical papers; to read portions of the more vivid sources and some of the best historical poetry and fiction; and to become acquainted with the writings of at least a few of the great historians. These purposes cannot be attained if the pupil is limited to a single book.

Moreover, when the work in history is confined to a single text, instruction too often becomes a mere memoriter process; and the pupil grows weary with repeated requirements for outlines, summaries and digests. The ordinary high-school text in history, as Judd has pointed out, consists of approximately six hundred pages, much of which is usually of such a highly condensed and abstract character as to be unintelligible to the average boy or girl. It is, moreover, so limited in amount that it can be read aloud by most high-school pupils in from forty to forty-five hours or read silently three times in from forty-five to fifty hours, silent reading usually being approximately three times as rapid as oral reading. Thus, a book which is intended for a year's work affords material fitted at best, so far as quantity is concerned, for two or three months' work. To illuminate and vivify the encyclopedic pages of the text, therefore, as well as to give pupils a quantity of material worthy of their efforts, an adequate supply of collateral reading is essential.

2. The books available in all but a few of the best-equipped schools are insufficient for effective supplementary reading in history. As one member of the committee puts it, "There seems to be an appalling scarcity of available laboratory material for history teaching." The questionnaires are filled with such comments as "impossible to do as much collateral reading as we would like for lack of books," "no school library," "little collateral reading due to lack of equipment," "not enough books," "no duplicates." Without duplication of usable books, in fact, it is impossible to do effective work in supplementary reading. Books which are intended for intensive use should be provided in such quantities as to furnish one copy for every three to eight pupils; those intended for extensive use should be supplied so as to provide one copy for every eight to fifteen pupils.

History teachers are, in the majority of cases, too modest in their demands for library equipment.<sup>1</sup> Elaborately equipped domestic science, botany, physics, and chemistry laboratories, and even more elaborately furnished manual-training and shop rooms, are by no means as scarce in good high schools as well-equipped history libraries. History teachers

must convince administrative officers that their subject can no more be taught effectively without equipment than can physics, domestic science, manual training, botany, or chemistry.

8. Many titles in high-school libraries are ill suited for high-school pupils. Among these may be mentioned such works as Ridpath's *History of the United States*, Johnson's *Readings in American Constitutional History*, Burgess' *Reconstruction and the Constitution*, and the *Cambridge Modern History*. Nor is it wise, in the judgment of the committee, to make a general practice of using other high-school texts as collateral reading; as a rule, they are too condensed and abstract and furnish little more than a rehash of what the pupil has already read in his own text.

4. The numerous requests for lists of books, as well as the character of many of the titles mentioned in the questionnaires, lead the committee to believe that there is a wide interest and serious need for suggestions as to the works best suited for collateral reading in history. To aid in meeting this need, the committee ventures to recommend two lists of books adapted for intensive reading in American history and modern European history. In justification of these lists, the committee offers four reasons: first, the books selected provide material for the economic, social, and political phases of the fields of history to be studied; second, they are in general written in a style intelligible and interesting to high-school pupils; third, they are scholarly and accurate; and, fourth, they are comparatively inexpensive—a matter which is vital, especially if, as the committee hopes, the books recommended are purchased in duplicate.

#### LIST OF BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR INTENSIVE READING IN AMERICAN HISTORY

1. R. G. Thwaites, *The Colonies*
2. A. B. Hart, *Formation of the Union*
3. Woodrow Wilson, *Division and Reunion*
4. E. L. Bogart, *Economic History of the United States*
5. A. B. Hart, *Social and Economic Forces in American History*
6. F. W. Halsey, *Great Epochs in American History*
7. D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*
8. H. W. Elson, *History of the United States of America*
9. C. R. Fish, *The Development of American Nationality*
10. Paul Haworth, *The United States in Our Own Times*

#### LIST OF BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR INTENSIVE READING IN MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY

1. E. J. Lowell, *The Eve of the French Revolution*
2. C. A. Herrick, *History of Commerce and Industry*
3. Hutton Webster, *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*
4. F. A. Ogg, *Economic Development of Modern Europe*
5. C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*
6. J. H. Robinson and C. A. Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*
7. C. D. Hazen, *Modern European History*

<sup>1</sup>In this connection, attention is called to the general statement of standards of high-school library administration and equipment as found in Certain's *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*, pp. 16, 23, 24. This report was adopted by the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and has been approved by the Committee on Education of the American Library Association.



8. J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*
9. W. S. Davis, *The Roots of the War*
10. R. G. Usher, *Story of the Great War*

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EXTENSIVE READING

Judging from the returns, many teachers interpret extensive reading to mean the perusal of such heavy, detailed, all-inclusive works as the *Historian's History of the World* or *Cambridge Modern History*. From the viewpoint of the committee, however, such reading should rather be of the sort which is easily within the grasp of pupils, which is written in a way to appeal to their interests and emotions, and which will give them a feeling of the reality of historical times and persons. It should, in short, consist of fascinating stories, biographies, diaries, source extracts, and historical novels.

Among the books dealing with American history which the committee recommends as useful for providing the mental background just mentioned are the following: Chestnut, *A Diary of Dixie*; Charnwood, *Life of Abraham Lincoln*; Dana, *Two Years Before the Mast*; Drinkwater, *Abraham Lincoln*; Earle, *Child Life in Colonial Days*; Ford, *The True George Washington*; Bassett, *The Story of Lumber*; Brooks, *The Story of Cotton*; Larcom, *A New England Girlhood*; Russell, *My Diary, North and South*; Brady, *The True Andrew Jackson*; Ripley, *Social Life in Old New Orleans*; Elson, *Sidelights on American History*; Nicolay, *Boy's Life of Lincoln*; Hagedorn, *Boy's Life of Roosevelt*; Laut, *Pathfinders of the West*; Haworth, *George Washington, Farmer*; Lodge and Roosevelt, *Heroes of American History*; Sanford, *Story of Agriculture in the United States*; Roosevelt, *Episodes from the Winning of the West*; various volumes in the works of Parkman and Fiske; selected passages from McMaster and Rhodes; and such historical novels as Churchill's, *The Crisis*; Johnston's, *Lewis and Clark*; Hough's, *Fifty-Four Forty or Fight*; Wister's, *The Virginian*; Garland's, *A Little Norsk*; Ford's, *The Honorable Peter Sterling*; and Thompson's, *Alice of Old Vincennes*.

For extensive reading in modern European history, the following titles are recommended: Simpson, *Rise of Louis Napoleon*; Mathews, *French Revolution*; Rose, *Life of Napoleon I*; Smiles, *Lives of the Inventors*; Green, *Short History of the English People*; Henderson, *Short History of Germany*; Peat, *Private Peat*; Trevelyan, *Garibaldi and the Thousand*; Motley, *Life of Peter the Great*; Southey, *Life of Nelson*; Tappan, *In Days Victorian*; Wallace, *Wonderful Century*; and such novels as Reade's, *Cloister and the Hearth*; Kingsley's, *Westward Ho!*; Blackmore's, *Lorna Doone*; Dickens', *Little Dorrit*; Davis', *Friar of Wittenberg*; Eliot's, *Silas Marner*; and Thackeray's, *Henry Esmond*.

5. Close co-operation between secondary schools and public libraries is very desirable both in helping solve the problem of an adequate supply of books and in acquainting pupils with the facilities and attractions of their own local library. Such co-operation may be brought about in several ways: (1) The public library may withdraw from circulation and place upon a reserved shelf such books as a history class needs at a certain time. (2) The library may send selected books to the school, where they can be used more conveniently by the pupils. (3) The two institutions may co-operate in ordering new books, so as to avoid needless duplication of titles. Of course, all three plans may be used.

6. Collateral reading must be regularly checked to be most effective. It is the belief of the committee that a method that most closely relates informational or intensive reading to the regular work as it moves along from day to day is best. To accomplish this, collateral reading of the intensive sort should be assigned definitely with exact page references so as to constitute an integral part of the required work; it should then have a definite place in the recitation. For the checking of atmospheric or extensive reading, a card report plus an occasional day devoted to the discussion of such material is recommended.

## The Methods and Aims of Committee Procedure Open Letters from Dr. Schafer and Mr. Rugg

Mr. Harold Rudd,  
Lincoln School, Teachers' College,  
Columbia University,  
New York City.

Dear Mr. Rudd:

I have to thank you for the courtesy of sending me a copy of your article in criticism of the work of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools, which article would have escaped my notice otherwise.

Needless to say, I find your essay interesting and I have read it with some care. With many of your views I am in hearty accord. Against your statement of principles I have written in red letters, the word *Fine*. You have given on these pages some valuable suggestions for teaching history.

It is not my purpose, in this letter, to enter upon

a detailed defense of the Committee. Such discussion is not likely to get us anywhere. I am willing to let the educational and historical public judge whether, in the circumstances which largely governed the Committee's activities, that body has done so badly that their work ought, as you suggest, to be wholly ignored—especially inasmuch as you can offer no hope of anything "scientific" for a period of at least three to five years.

There is, however, in your indictment of our Committee's work, a claim of scientific procedure on the part of some—particularly a group which you represent—that ought to be examined because of the influence which such a claim may exert on the procedure of the Committee now embodied, and possibly other committees, like that of the N. E. A the Political Science Association, etc.

Your claim, in a word, is that a *scien'*

is being followed by you in segregating the material for preparing a curriculum in the social studies. Your prospective publications you claim will cover:

1. A study of text-books now in use.
2. A study of what "outstanding thinkers" would include in a curriculum.
3. A study of allusions found in publications.
4. A study of what is "crucial" matter in present curricula.

I welcome, and have always welcomed, every step, whether taken by a pure pedagogist or by a trained social science worker, which is calculated to render the problems of the curricula makers more definite, to give a larger measure of control over the materials with which they deal. I am even disposed to think that our Committee as a whole was fully pledged to receive every assistance which anyone could, or was willing to, offer along these lines. But when you pretend that such work as you outline is "scientific" I shall have to insist that you show how it is scientific.

Take, for example, your fourth point. You say: "Likewise, a study is being made of the extent to which our existing curriculum in history, geography and civics deals with vitally important problems of contemporary life, with crucial economic, social and political 'laws' and relationships, and with established modes of living." You condemn "opinion" as a basis of curriculum making. What is the process you describe above if it is not a setting up of "opinion"—either your own or that of others chosen by you—as criteria for determining what is "vitally important," "crucial," etc.? You profess, in 2, to investigate what units of material "outstanding thinkers" would have us present in the several grades. Who are the "outstanding thinkers" and how do you select them—for obviously you do select them? You speak of them as "the most prominent men in various branches of work." But you yourself determine who are the "most prominent" and then you evidently assume that the "most prominent" is also the wisest, the most philosophical—an assumption which history denies. Presumably pedagogical investigators are not all cast in the same mold, however, in which case investigator *A* would base his "units of material" on a canvass of the views of W, X, Y, and Z; while investigator *B* would base his on the views of R, S, T, and U. That is to say, if your investigator is a social reactionary he will collect opinions from a given group of "prominent" men; if he is a liberal he will collect from a group largely or wholly distinct from the first, and if he is a radical he will collect from yet another group. It is not possible—unless we limit investigation to a single school of thinkers—to have anything like unanimity in the result, and if it is so limited what value will the results possess? A committee basing its findings upon them would be building on the sands. After all, it is mere "opinion" camouflaged by the cant of a professed "scientific" investigation.

Bishop Stubbs once remarked that the man who has opinions of his own will always be considered

dogmatic by the man who takes his from the newspapers. If any pedagogist finds the study of other men's opinions diverting, there is no harm in the exercise. And it may even, in some cases, do good in the way of clarifying his own opinions. But it is only by a process of self-deception that one convinces himself he is attaining, in that way, something "scientific," something equivalent to the quintessential views of the generation's leaders. What one really does under such circumstances, of course, is to assemble a group of congenial views such as he would himself have uttered had he been able to express them.

It goes without saying that any scholarly man, or set of men, will test personal views against the views of others, but that is a different matter from pretending to act as a mere impersonal reflector of the best views of the age—a pretense which cannot be characterised in terms too severe.

And now, let me ask you one or two questions. First, if your "procedure" would be to ignore the fact that we have today a curriculum, in history, etc., and start afresh, what will be the use of making "careful—quantitative as well as qualitative—analysis of nationally used histories," etc.?

Secondly, what, precisely, do you expect to gain by making "an elaborate statistical analysis of the allusions found in representative newspapers and magazines"? Do you mean that statistics of such allusions are to serve as a criterion of what should go into text-books? If so, what method do you take to control your statistics? Surely you would not pretend that publications that are merely "current" should be the criterion for determining what we are to teach during the next five, ten or twenty years. Or, are you considering publications covering as many years back as you expect to project this teaching forward? If so, what allowance do you make for the well-known fact that the past seven years have been wholly abnormal ones as respects news and current reading matter generally? Before you can claim to have anything "scientific" even under the limitations affecting modern sociology, you will be obliged to show that sound reason controls your statistical processes, and I am truly eager to know what is the time basis you employ in the suggested research.

In so far as your researches are based on sound reason, "opinion" you might call it, I trust your results may be placed at the disposal of the new Committee on History, and of the other committees working along similar lines. But, when all is said and done, every committee will have to proceed in the way to which weak human nature is limited; namely, someone (a person, a mind) will strike out a line of procedure, will outline a curriculum. Then, with discussion, criticism, experiment, that curriculum will be improved until it shall be thought generally workable, when it may perhaps be as universally adopted and followed as was the curriculum outlined by the Committee of Seven for high schools, or that of the Committee of Eight for the grades.

What may be the fate of the work done by the late Committee of Eight on history remains to be seen.

In presenting the general statement for the Committee, the chairman used the following language: "This report is not issued by authority; its recommendations are in no sense compulsory; and it can have only such influence as the inherent soundness of its conclusions, when examined and tested by experiment, shall win for it." The Committee all along has been animated by a spirit the reverse of arrogant. All of its members were honestly desirous of accomplishing some good, and when the chairman said in conclusion: "We will be gratified if, at the end of a decade, our work shall be appraised as helpful by way of suggestion and stimulation," he felt himself to be speaking as the representative of the entire Committee. Under these circumstances, it is not to be wondered at if sensitive members of the Committee shall feel a little hurt when they find a talented teacher like yourself setting up the "opinion" that the public should "refuse a hearing" to us. However, that is a question for the public itself to decide.

Sincerely yours, JOSEPH SCHAFER.

### On Reconstructing the Social Studies Comments on Mr. Schafer's Letter

BY HAROLD RUGG, THE LINCOLN SCHOOL OF  
TEACHERS COLLEGE

In my article in *The Historical Outlook* of May, 1921, entitled "How Shall We Reconstruct the Social Studies Curriculum?" the following points were made:

1. The school curriculum has been and is being designed now by a type of committee procedure that is unscientific and armchair-made. It has failed to bring about sound, scientific, and relatively permanent reconstruction of the school curriculum. The most recent and typical example is the report of Mr. Shafer's Committee on History and Education for Citizenship for Schools.

2. A definite program for a national committee on the reconstruction of a school subject was sketched and the activities and report of Mr. Shafer's committee were measured against it point by point. It was found lacking in all but one (minor) particular.

3. The chief criticisms made were: (a) that the committee had not set forth definitely their program of purposes and criteria for selection, grade placement and presentation of subject matter; (b) that the details of a curriculum had been published and recommended for certain school grades, notably the IX and X (and an outline of periods, nations, etc., for the other grades) without investigations of social needs and experimental teaching of proposed courses. In a word, that the work was without adequate philosophical basis and was supported by insufficient evidence as to selection and arrangement of material.

4. A very brief and incomplete illustration was given of an approach to scientific method in curriculum-making in the social studies both as to (a) selection of content and (b) the grading and arrangement of material. It is unfortunate that the illustration had to be so brief. Care was taken to state that it was only an outline and that several articles would be published elaborating it during the present year.

Mr. Shafer's comment practically ignored the principal issues sketched in 1, 2 and 3 of the foregoing paragraphs. This is to be regretted for the issue is crucial. We should have thorough discussion of it. Mr. Shafer's comments deal almost solely with that part of my illustration which discusses the selection of content. He asks three questions. The first is: "When you pretend that such work as you outline is 'scientific,' I shall have to insist that you show how it is scientific." It is impossible in this brief comment to give a detailed reply. Many pages would be necessary.

The chief issue raised by my article and Mr. Shafer's comment is: What is scientific method in curriculum-making? In any field of research scientific method makes use of at least two distinct steps: (1) the exercise of creative imagination in the construction of hypotheses. These are to be distinguished from uncritical guesses or impulsive first thoughts. They are highly eclectic and are made as a result of deep deliberation, analysis, comparison and selection or rejection of suggested propositions.

- (2) The collection of facts which bear upon the issue; investigation—organization of these facts; their measurement. In a word, *the collection and shifting of evidence.*

Probably the principal intellectual aim for most schoolwork should be that of training children in this process of testing evidence. This is the chief aim of the social studies course for grades IV to XII inclusive, which our Lincoln School group is now constructing by research methods.

Curriculum-making is twofold: (1) the selection of content; (2) its organization, grade placement and class presentation. Students of the curriculum for some years have been developing a technique which may fairly be said to embody an approach to scientific method. Certainly they are making use of the different phases of scientific procedure enumerated in the foregoing paragraphs. They are making hypotheses and collecting and reviewing evidence with respect both to the content of the course and its organization, grade placement and class presentation.

For example: one of the most important hypotheses they have made recently is that the most effective content with which we can train children for participation in the affairs of every-day life—social, economic and political—is *the content of the affairs of every-day life itself*. To this must be added the necessary historical background. How much background? Only that amount of historical development which proves to be crucial for the understanding of contemporary activities, institutions and problems themselves. (There is vastly more recorded history available for use in our school courses than we can possibly employ, even if it were all socially worth while. Hence we need a criterion for selection. Ours is stated as: "only that which is crucial for a good understanding of contemporary activities, institutions and problems.") Who shall determine "what is crucial"? The specialists in the validity of subject matter; that is, the historian of land, the

historian of government, the historian of immigration and population, the historian of labor, the historian of credit. Certainly the educationist would not claim competence in these fields.

What does "scientific education" say should be done to select the content of the course—granting the hypothesis just discussed. It says: *determine by actual investigation*, first, what are current life activities, institutions and problems; second, what historical background is crucial to the understanding of these matters.

How can one determine what are socially worthwhile materials for the curriculum? Any well-informed person could write out *some*—perhaps many—of the activities, institutions and problems of contemporary life. (That is exactly the way in which our school text books in community civics are now being written.) However, we cannot let the formulation of a curriculum for millions of children rest on the experience of a few persons, no matter how well trained they may be. So "scientific education" demands a careful quantitative inventory of these activities, institutions and issues of today. It says: We will *tabulate what men do* in their industrial, social and political life. We will record what their adult needs *actually are* in the labor union, in their occupational life, in their fraternal organizations. Thus, we will tabulate what things men read in their homes, on their way to work. We will determine completely—beyond the possibility of error due to the inadequacy of individual experience—in what activities men really need to be trained to take part. Scientific method in curriculum-making in the social sciences then, demands inventories—counts—of life's activities.

Mr. Shafer's second question is: "Do you mean that statistics of such allusions (from magazines) are to serve as a criterion of what should go into text books?" Our reply is "yes, as *one* criterion." Analysis of weekly magazines (of all shades of political, social and economic faiths, of course) and extended over, say 20 years (which is our present criterion) is one lead that should eventuate in a statement of the major topics that should form a course of study. Our hypothesis is this: Weekly journals, specifically the *Literary Digest*, *The Outlook*, *The Nation*, *The Independent*, *The Survey* and the *New Republic*; if taken over a wide span of years, provide a complete discussion of all the activities and issues of contemporary life that are worth putting into a curriculum. Of course, they do not deliberately deal with historical developments although a great many historical allusions of importance are utilized; in fact, the tabulation of the contents of such magazines will provide *one* check on what historical material should be incorporated in the course of study. Another and more important method, however, is to determine with the historian of each special field, what historical background shall be provided in a school course. In this determination one should hold constantly in mind the necessity of including only *crucial* earlier developments.

The process of tabulating these activities and issues is just now being carried on. It will result in tables which show the frequency of recurrence of particular topics and issues. It is, of course, impossible to state before the complete tables are before us what our final criterion of inclusion and rejection of material will be. Certain topics will obviously prove to be of permanent and fundamental value—and others of doubtful value. It is these latter, in a crowded curriculum, that will have to be eliminated.

But the tabulation of topics from magazines is only one and, on the whole, a minor step in our quantitative collection of materials. More important is the determination of *what are the fundamental unsolved issues and problems of the day*. Once found, these form the central theme of the school course. They are distinctly the guiding thread of our high-school course and also serve to determine specifically what actual materials are included in the lower grades, IV, V, VI, etc.

As a result of some eighteen months of research, the Lincoln School group now has completed tentatively a list of eighty contemporary problems—social, industrial, economic and political. I give a few illustrations to show what we have in mind.

I. The problem of making available adequate rural credits.

II. The problem of securing the fullest co-operation between labor and capital.

III. The problem of providing continuous employment for all.

IV. The problem of co-operating ownership and credit facilities.

V. The problem of adult education by the dissemination through the press of the essential principles concerning contemporary economic, social and political matters.

These are typical of the entire list of eighty. This list forms the core of our high-school course. Children are to deal, week by week, with concrete discussions of those problems so that eventually an appreciation of the problems must be obtained. This does not mean that they can *solve* the problems—nor can the teachers themselves. Society has not yet solved them. In its history society has, however, amassed evidence of various aspects of each issue. We believe the curriculum should set this evidence before children and that they should have constant practice in reviewing and testing the evidence.

The question is, therefore, how can such a list of problems be compiled? By referring to our individual and uncontrolled experience? No. Rather from the mature judgment of many, say 100, of the soundest thinkers we can find of all faiths in economics, in government, in social affairs.

Mr. Shafer's third question deals with tests of soundness of thinking. What is the best test? My judgment? No. The best test is the evaluation which the world has made of the ability of leaders themselves in the various fields. This is shown by *earned* positions of leadership, by writings, by recog-

nized academic standing. We have assumed that the best test is the consensus of judgment of say 80 to 100 workers who themselves occupy either positions of prestige or who have written and published through agencies of established prestige.

That is exactly the group to which we have turned. Each of eighty of such leaders was asked to name for us the ten books in English of any date which he would analyze if he faced the task of compiling a statement of the highest quality of the problems and issues of the day, with the qualification that he must not miss any issue of importance. (This list of eighty workers will doubtless become a list of 100 to 125 before the end of the present year.) Mr. Shafer asks: "Who are the 'outstanding thinkers' and how do you select them—for obviously you do select them. You speak of them as 'the most prominent men in various branches of work,'" etc.

Here is the list of workers whose advice has been sought so far:

## ECONOMICS

E. L. Bogart	S. O. Dunn
Emory R. Johnson	H. R. Seager
E. L. Seligman	Ordway Tead
C. M. Thompson	D. R. Dewey
J. R. Commons ✓	L. C. Marshall
H. G. Moulton	R. T. Ely
Irving Fisher	E. F. Gay
F. W. Taussig	W. C. Ripley
Thorstein Veblen ✓	Sidney Webb ✓
R. H. Tawney ✓	C. H. Douglas
James Bryce ✓	E. E. Day
John A. Fitch	Leo Wolman
Walter Hamilton	Harlow S. Persons
Jos. H. Willits	W. Jette Lauck
M. Hendershot	George Soule ✓

## GOVERNMENT

F. A. Ogg	L. S. Rowe
Wm. B. Munro	C. A. Beard
Edgar Dawson	C. R. Woodruff
H. L. McBain	D. L. Wilcox
J. A. Fairlie	J. W. Garner
R. M. Storey	J. M. Mathews
F. W. Dodd	R. E. Cushman

A. N. Holcomb

## EDITORS

P. N. Kellogg	E. T. Devine
J. K. Hart	Graham Taylor
Arthur Gleason	Jane Addams
Oswald Villard	J. A. Hobson
Louis Gannett	Arthur Warner
H. L. Mencken	Herbert Croley
Francis Hackett	Alvin Johnson
Walter Lippman	Francis Neilson
Hamilton Holt	E. E. Slosson
Laurence Abbott	Fabian Franklin
Robt. LaFollette	Albert J. Nock

## HISTORIANS

L. M. Larson	Clive Day
Carl Becker	G. S. Ford
J. H. Robinson	

## SOCIOLOGISTS

R. A. Park	E. C. Hays
F. H. Giddings	E. A. Ross
C. H. Cooley	J. Q. Dealey
A. J. Todd	C. A. Ellwood
E. S. Bogardus	S. McCune Lindsay
E. W. Burgess	Ross Finney
J. Gillette	J. L. Gillin

## ANTHROPOLOGISTS

Robert H. Lowie	Franz Boaz
Wm. F. Ogburn	Elsie C. Parsons

We have assumed that writings chosen by the consensus of judgment of these men provide material from which a thoroughly complete and intelligent analysis of contemporary issues can be made. We believe scientific method can be employed in the evaluation of human judgments. Specifically, a consensus of the judgments of a highly selected group of judges (they have selected themselves by their own objective performances—that is, by their writings and the recognition already accorded them) provides proper material for inventory—for count—for statistical treatment.

These additional steps have been taken to make sure that our list of problems is complete. 1. A tabulation of each book reviewed in the Book Review Digest since 1914. 2. Examination of each book on the shelves of the Columbia University Library which deals with any aspect of this field—economical, social, industrial or political. 3. The careful reading of the reviews in six weekly journals, referred to above, from which a list of approximately 80 books was selected and carefully read during the eighteen months of our research.

From these three leads, a list of 140 books has been compiled and a more complete bibliography of 1100 books. The elaborate analysis of these books has resulted in the set of 80 problems to which we have already referred. This list of books and the details of our research, together with the final statement of the problems, will be published near the close of the present school year. Brevity of space will not permit more details in the present article.

Mr. Schafer's fourth question is: "If your 'procedure' would be to ignore the fact that we have today a curriculum in history, etc., and start afresh, what will be the use of making careful quantitative—as well as qualitative—analysis of nationally used histories?" The use is this: We need to accumulate evidence so conclusive of the inadequacy of the present curriculum in history, geography and other social studies that the protagonists of "things as they are" will be convinced of the need of systematic, scientific reconstruction. I phrase it in this way because of the overwhelming evidence already compiled. To help in the accumulation of this evidence, our own group is carrying on a series of investigations from which we are determining the exact status of social studies teaching in the public schools of the United

States. Our primary purpose is: agitation, discussion by teachers, administrators and specialists of the need of more scientific construction of school courses. It is only by joint and sympathetic discussion of actual evidence concerning existing practices that minds will come together on programs of procedure for reconstruction.

I have tried to illustrate briefly the two phases of scientific procedure *only* in so far as they deal with the selection of the content of the course. It is possible, however, to illustrate more effectively the setting-up of hypotheses and the carrying on of controlled experimentation from material which deals with the organization and arrangement of the materials in the course. Space in this article will permit merely a discussion of this most important matter. I shall make it the theme of other articles to be published shortly.

In connection with the organization of social studies material we feel we are making definite use of scientific procedure. My earlier article showed that there has been a tendency in the organization of social studies courses to ignore contemporary thought on the psychology of learning. The first step, therefore, in organizing a course of study is to set forth hypotheses concerning principles on which the material can be graded and organized. We have arrived at a number of rather important hypotheses and are now framing our experimentation with a view to their confirmation or refutation. I can merely enumerate some of these hypotheses.

I. All units of work shall be presented definitely in problem-solving form (as contrasted with the narrative, factual, compartment method, with questions at end of chapter which courses now employ). Factual settings are grouped around *problems* stated so as to force an attitude of further inquiry.

One of the most important implications of this principle is that all economic, industrial, social and political material shall be woven together in *one course*, as contrasted with three or more in current practice—history, geography, civics, economics, etc.

There are important psychological and administrative reasons for this.

II. At the present time, great gaps occur in the continuity and progression of history, geography and civics courses. History is taught in certain grades but not in all; geography in but few. It is one of our central theses that there should be one continuous *social studies course* from the first grade to the twelfth, hence we are assigning material to each grade (tentatively working from the fourth) in such a way that the discussions of one grade shall be continuations of those of earlier grades but on more mature levels because of the increased maturity of the children.

III. Problems shall be based (not solely on the spontaneous interests of particular pupils) but on: 1. common experiences of children of that mental and social age; 2. personal appeals where possible, e. g. "What would you do if—etc.?" 3. alternative proposals where possible, to force comparison and

systematizing of facts; 4. intellectual opposition to obtain interest; 5. much concrete human detail to obtain interest.

IV. Constant practice shall be given in analyzing, generalizing and organizing, as material that pertains to the "problems" is collected and studied. We are applying laws of habit-formation to analytical thinking in the social field. The important generalizations in each field must be discovered and such a considerable amount of activity provided for pupils (excursions, collecting facts, making maps, making notes of observations, writing reports, etc.) that much practice will be given in analyzing, generalizing and organizing.

V. Problem-situations shall be presented *first through current affairs*. Only those *historical backgrounds* shall be developed which specialists in the validity of historical materials in each field (government, economics and social relations) decide are *crucial for clear thinking about contemporary matters*. Thus, history is not regarded as a "content" subject;—only geography, government, economics, industry, anthropology, sociology, psychology are that. An article setting forth this theory will be published this year.

VI. Historical backgrounds, involving a grasp of "time sequence," "continuity," or "development" of contemporary institutions and activities, are presented through "sharp contrasts." Sequence should move very rapidly in lower grades, somewhat more slowly in high school. Backgrounds are extensive, "thin," moving rapidly, and very concrete, in say, the fourth and fifth grades, becoming gradually more intensive, detailed, abstract and moving more slowly in the junior and senior high-school grades.

VII. Problems, or the examples of generalization and organization which contribute to them, should recur in many grades, organized on an increasingly more mature level. Thus, some form of "layer" scheme may prove to be most effective to provide sufficient repetition.

The scientific construction of a course of study demands the most elaborately controlled experimental teaching in the class room. Programs which have been set up by methods outlined earlier in this article must be really experimented upon. An important step is the critical observation and measurement of material taught children in the class room. In our Lincoln School procedure, each lesson is taught by one of our research workers under the critical observation of at least one other. Detailed records are kept, in many cases verbatim, stenographic accounts of class work. Materials are re-written as the class is taught and discussed critically in conferences immediately following the class hour. At the present time, it is impossible to teach two or more organizations of the same material in our school for no "control" classes are available. Later this will be possible. However, the great need at the present time is new continuously-organized courses of study which are proven by observation and measured results to be teachable in the different grades.

## New Book on High School Methods

TRYON, R. M. *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921. pp. 294.

The literature on the teaching of history in high schools is by no means extensive, being limited to magazine articles and a few books, many of which are old and out of date. Notwithstanding this fact many people seemed to think that the last word had been said on the subject and that any attempt at a contribution would only result in repetition. In spite of this view, however, Professor Rolla M. Tryon of the University of Chicago has dared to enter the field, and the result—*The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*—thoroughly justifies his venture. In fact, Professor Tryon's achievement exceeds anything that has been done heretofore. Perhaps he has not said anything new—for much has been said; but he has done something new, and in the realm of action he has found few competitors.

Writers on method have too often been content to raise problems without solving them. Professor Tryon has gone further. He has stated the problems simply, discussed them briefly, and has presented a solution based upon sound theory and illustrated by examples taken from actual practice. His contribution lies in the fact that he has presented solutions, something that the teacher has most needed but has scarcely been able to obtain. The dominant idea of the entire discussion is that there is a special technic of teaching history that can be mastered by the teacher and applied in class-room activity. To deny the author this hypothesis is equivalent to denying that history teaching attains to the dignity of either a profession or a trade.

The author has limited his consideration to the ten most fundamental problems of teaching, allotting one or more chapters to each. Further examination seems to reveal the fact that he has succeeded in solving at least five of the ten problems; the other five are ably discussed. One notes that the method of approach and attack is similar in every case: (1) statement and definition of problem; (2) discussion; (3) presentation of the author's own solution or plan.

The problems which seem to have been solved have to do largely with procedure in the class-room, and are as follows: the Recitation, Teaching Pupils How to Study, Special Methods of Procedure, Written Work, and Planning the Course and Lesson.

Of these topics, the most important is the third, pertaining to Special Methods of Procedure, which the author has treated in two chapters. The methods used by the teacher correspond somewhat to the instruments used by the workman. The skilled workman uses many tools, and he is a poor one indeed who relies wholly upon one. The teacher of history is a workman, and his skill depends in large measure upon the number of methods he can use, and upon his facility in manipulating them. He should have a thorough acquaintance with the tools at his command and be able consciously and purposefully to

select and use the particular one which the exigencies of the occasion require. Five methods are presented: lecture, text-book, topics, sources and problem. Each is defined, its merits are discussed, limitations pointed out, and proper uses indicated. The mastery of these five methods by any teacher will result in an increased resourcefulness and reserve power which are prime qualities in a class-room.

The treatment of written work ranks next in importance to that of the special methods. The types of written work mentioned are note-taking, the making of diaries, digests, abstracts, quotations, biographical sketches and bibliographies. The permanent notebook is defined as the repository of such written work as the pupil or teacher may desire to have preserved for possible future use.

The term paper, as discussed, is designed to be the crowning achievement of the high school pupil, involving in its preparation some of the knowledge and all the historical skill which has been acquired in four years of training. Such a paper would stand in the same relation to the high school pupil as the master's thesis bears to the graduate student. Since it requires so much training, it should be assigned in the senior year, and preferably in the field of American history. Other writers have said as much, but Professor Tryon has gone beyond theoretical discussion and abstract statement down to the bedrock of concrete facts and visible, usable illustrations. He has presented the most minute directions for all the processes involved in writing the term paper, such as note-taking, organizing and writing, making footnotes and references, and bibliographies.

The author also insists, and with convincing argument, that the teacher should not only have a definite plan for each day and recitation, but that he should have one for the entire year. It is intimated that the teacher should work as an architect with a complete plan before him rather than as an artisan who labors from day to day, and often with his eyes upon the ground.

So much for the five problems which appear to have been solved. The remaining chapters are not so satisfying in their conclusions. It is true that in each case a plan has been offered, which goes as far perhaps as any other. The five remaining topics are as follows: Progress Within the Subject, Measuring Results, Library and Collateral Reading, Current Events, and The High-School History Teacher. These are the baffling subjects which defy that cold analysis and definite prescription which the author has attempted throughout the work. Of all these discussions, the one on the history teacher is perhaps the least satisfactory. The author urges preparation, training, and all those necessary things. But after all it is as Edward Yeomans says in his remarkable article, "A Teacher of History": "The great thing about a teacher of youth is not at all how much he knows. . . . The important thing is his personal radiative power along the highways which his pupils have to travel."

The faults of the book are few and unimportant.



It is not clear to the reviewer just why the chapters are arranged in the particular order in which they appear. The table of contents would be more convenient for use by teachers—and reviewers—had it been enlarged to include the principal topics under each chapter heading. Since the author followed practically the same routine of procedure within each chapter, as I have indicated above, he might have informed the reader of this plan in his preface. There are certain passages, particularly in the first chapter, which might be revised to advantage. Though the book is printed on a good quality of paper with clear type, it is not especially attractive in appearance. It is bound in drab-colored buckram of indifferent texture, has no cover design, and presents few contrasts of type in chapter and topic headings.

The contents, however, should not be judged by the covers. It may be said in conclusion, that Professor Tryon has made the most helpful and practical contribution that has yet been made in this country to the rather highly specialized profession of history teaching. And it is indeed encouraging that one writer on method has kept his feet on the ground, based his claims on practice, and avoided generalities. The book will prove of inestimable value to college classes in history teaching and to all history teachers who use it.

W. P. WEBB.

University of Texas.

## Some Recent Texts in Civics and Political Science

REVIEWED BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON.

MERRIAM, CHARLES EDWARD. *American Political Ideas*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. Pp. 5, 481.

This volume of "Studies in the Development of American Political Thought, 1865-1917," as the sub-title reads, contains a series of fifteen essays on such topics as "Typical Interpretations of Democracy," "Legislative and Executive Powers," "The Courts and Justice," "Democracy and Constitutional Change," "Internationalism-Pacifism-Militarism," "Systematic Studies of Politics."

A reading of the essays leaves one with a feeling that the author has digested a large amount of useful material—has, in fact, surveyed his field completely; but it also leaves at least the casual reader with some mental indigestion. Too many authors are quoted, too many names are mentioned, the mass of material is poured upon in too much of deluge, for one to read it easily and with enjoyment. After going through a chapter or essay one feels as if he had been reading the encyclopedia or the dictionary. Nevertheless, the book is a useful one, and is a contribution to the study of politics. As a reference book for the student who is just embarking on real university scholarship in the field either of economics, government, or sociology, it should be welcome. The candidate for the doctorate in political science might well work through it just before his examination in order to test his command on the field and in order to find where his preparation is weak.

One might suspect that the author had for a number

of years been making notes of his reading and had suddenly decided to publish a book based on his notes. He presents no philosophy, no doctrines, no reasoning toward a program. His work seems to be wholly historical—he says it consists of studies in development—and one may justly regret that he did not give the reader a little insight into what he thinks about it all. One wonders whether he has any feeling about its utility. No able mind, such as the author's, could have gone through all this mass of material without bringing out some views on practical, current problems of political organization; and one misses an expression of them. But it is not fair to judge a work by what we wish the author had done; we are at liberty only to ask whether he has done well what he set out to do. Judged by this standard, Professor Merriam has given us a thorough, incisive and comprehensive survey of American political ideas during the last half century.

SAIT, EDWARD MCCHESNEY. *Government and Politics of France*. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1920. Pp. 15, 478. \$2.60.

This is the fourth volume of a series of government handbooks, its predecessors have dealt with the German Empire, Canada and Switzerland. The American student will find here the most scholarly discussion in English of present-day political institutions in France. The presentation is not so much historical as analytical and descriptive; but enough of history is given to furnish a background for present conditions. The illustrations, of which there are fourteen, have been well chosen to contribute to the discussion rather than merely to ornament the book.

The twelve chapters treat of the following topics: the constitution of 1875; the President of the Republic, the ministers, first in their political and second in their administrative capacity; the Senate; the Chamber of Deputies, first its composition and second its procedure; local government; political development; parties; administrative courts; ordinary courts. The discussion of each of these topics is illuminated with a wealth of illustrative detail and ordered in such logical sequence that the book will doubtless for a long time be the standard work on contemporary political France. The reader who wishes merely to dip into the book might well turn first to the author's discussion of the contrast between the two-party system of the English-speaking countries and the multi-party system of France and continental Europe generally.

OGG, FREDERIC AUSTIN. *The Governments of Europe*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. Pp. 10, 775.

This is a revised edition of Professor Ogg's work of 1913, and in contradistinction to most so-called revisions, it shows many signs of work on the part of the author. Those who have been using the earlier work as a text will find it necessary to discard it and adopt the new one unless they wish to be charged with indifference. Holland, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Norway, each given considerable treatment in the earlier edition, have been omitted from this one. On the other hand, the new Russian Soviet Republic is discussed; and the new government of Germany is given quite a little space. Austria-Hungary

has disappeared from the book as it has from the map; and the new countries which have arisen in its place are not discussed.

It is not necessary to characterize Professor Ogg's work here. Everyone who is studying government in America is aware of the obligation under which he has placed all political scientists by giving to the student in brief, clear, definite statements the outstanding features of European political institutions. It is difficult to see how a course for college students in the governments of Europe could avoid using his contributions. The present reviewer regrets that it has been necessary to omit the less important countries of Europe from the new edition. There are many interesting things to be said about the government of Belgium, the Portuguese Republic and recent Spanish developments. But in the new edition we find the treatment of England doubled and that of France three times as full. Doubtless this fuller treatment of these two great examples of liberal government will in the long run prove more useful to the student than the brief account that could have been given of any one less important country.

AMES, EDGAR W., and ELDRED, ARVIE. *Community Civics*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1921. Pp. 12, 381.

This is a regulation text in "community civics." It contains chapters on the home and family; education; government and health; protection of life and property; government and play; government and making a living; political parties, the President; state executives, and so on. The illustrations are well selected; the questions at the ends of the chapters are interesting. In the appendix there is a bibliography and the constitution of the United States. It is a little encyclopedia for small children on the political, economic and social facts of our life. For those who wish to give this kind of a course, this text seems to be as good as any that has appeared. It is evidently intended for younger pupils than is Mr. Hughes' book of the same name. One question might be asked. Why do the authors not tell us for what grade the book is intended? For those who are seeking textbooks, one of the most important pieces of information is the answer to the question, is it for the eighth, ninth, tenth or eleventh grade? Our textbook writers should begin using guns of smaller bore, which will not scatter so widely. One cannot serve any of the grades well if one tries to serve all of them or even half a dozen of them.

GUITEAU, WILLIAM BACKUS. *Government and Politics in the United States*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. Pp. 17, 484, 36. \$1.40.

This is a revised edition of the well known and standard text which appeared under the same title in 1911. The revision does not offer a great many changes either in matter or form. The most important is the substitution of standard-size type for the smaller size used so frequently before. Most of those who have been following the evolution of instruction in the social studies are familiar with this work, which is generally regarded as one of the most useful among the fuller high school texts. It is interesting to observe that the author has substituted "Problems of American Democracy" for "A Textbook for Secondary Schools" on the title page. It is evident that he is offer-

ing the work for the new twelfth-year course as well as for the regulation course in "civics"; but those who wish to make this course a synopsis of the best that economics and sociology as well as political science has to offer will not sympathize with his expectation that this book will meet the needs of that course—good as the book is, and deserving as it is of general introduction in courses in elementary government.

The reviewer, since it is unnecessary to describe so well known a work in detail, would like to pick a crow or two with the author. Why does he not, in his chapter on the state executive, say something about the movement to organization this department for efficiency and visibility? The expression "short-ballot" does not appear in the index, and if it is in the text it is pretty carefully concealed. Yet twenty-five state governors are doing what they can to reorganize their state governments on this principle and every leading authority on state government is denouncing a condition which Mr. Guiteau describes as if it were acceptable. Some states have already mended their ways, and every constitutional convention is moving toward consolidation. If this book is to be offered in the "Problems of Democracy" course, surely here is a well-defined problem of democracy for which there is a generally accepted solution. The solution should not be omitted from as good a text as this one.

The budget does not seem to appear in the discussion of state governments in spite of the fact that Maryland has led her sister states in the direction of this wise reform. In the discussion of the Federal system, there are several interesting paragraphs on financial organization; but one is disappointed to find the following sentence, "Objection was made to this proposal [executive budget] on the ground that it would transfer a large part of the appropriating power to the Executive," stated baldly as if there were some foundation for it, and without further discussion of its untenability.

Under local government, the author presents the newer forms of city government and properly lays a good deal of stress on the excellencies of the commission-manager plan. Why then does he discuss the rotten county government which prevails in most places as if it were not remarkably wrong-headed, and make no reference to the movements, some of them already effective, to correct the evils of this stratum of our political life?

This book devotes an entirely disproportionate amount of space to the Federal Government; it is too fully a mere description of things as they are; it fails to present the vision of democracy which political scientists are evolving and which is coming rapidly to realization. Nevertheless, it is one of the most useful texts we have, and a well-trained teacher can conduct an excellent course with it.

MARSHALL, LEON C. and LYON, EVERETT S. *Our Economic Organization*. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 7, 503.

No one who is interested in the social studies as they are presented in the secondary school can afford to neglect this work. There is no text which seems more happily to have struck the mean between the small college book for high schools and the impressionistic treatise on socialized industry. The authors are professors of economics in the University of Chicago, Professor Marshall be-

Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration. He is also chairman of the Committee on Economics in the schools of the American Economic Association.

"The material" of the book, the authors tell us in the preface, "is an outgrowth of a considerable period of experience and experiment both with secondary school students and with beginners in university classes in economics. The book has been used successfully in mimeographed form in a variety of institutions, and has in its present form the benefit of many suggestions from these sources." It seems to be the offspring of a marriage between the best university scholarship and the best pedagogical practice. No one, least of all probably the authors of this work, would pretend that we have solved the problem of instruction in economic ideas in the secondary school; but the makers of this book seem to have followed the only method through which we may hope to approach a solution. They have selected the notions to be "put across," organized them on the basis of the best psychological conclusions we have, and then experimented fully with their results. They will doubtless welcome suggestions from those who use the book leading to its improvement.

SWEETSER, ARTHUR. *The League of Nations at Work*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. Pp. 7, 215.

Attention has recently been called to the alleged fact that of the taxes collected by our Federal Government this year 93 per cent. will go to financing the preparation for war or healing its ravages; while only 7 per cent. will go to all the other activities of our National organization. Mr. Herbert Hoover recently said, "The actual number of men under arms today is much greater than in 1914. The world's total armaments and the military expenditures are greater despite the burden of grinding debt." It is time for a sharp differentiation to be drawn between the pacifist who would tamely submit to unjustified attack on the one hand, and on the other the man who would bring the world out of the anarchy in which every nation must go about its work all the time armed to the teeth. The author of the little book which is before us believes, evidently, as do so many other thoughtful people, that only through a world organization can world law and order be preserved. But for the constant and stupid arguments against it, this position would seem to be self-evident to every sane mind, whatever may be the differences of opinion as to the desirability of the particular organization provided at Versailles. This little book, written by an author who has been intimate with the League from its beginning, through its various stages of growth, until the present, is a concise, clear, and forceful presentation of what the League has been doing; it is, whether the author wished to make it so or not, an argument that America take up her part in the work of the world through terminating our present isolation from the effort at world organization.

CARLTON, FRANK TRACY. *Elementary Economics*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. Pp. 8, 209.

The author tells us that this little book is "An Introduction to the Study of Economics and Sociology"; but he gives us no hint as to who he wishes to introduce to these

distinguished sciences. From the size and style of the book, one may assume that it is intended for the 8th or 9th grade of school work. It might be intended for the elementary course in the social studies which many would like to see in the 9th grade. If so, one wonders why the author does not let us into the secret. The author was formerly professor of economics and sociology; now he is professor of only the former, and the fact shows in his book. The pupil who is introduced to sociology through this medium would not be on intimate terms with the subject. Part I is industrial history; Part II, such economic concepts as value, wealth, income, monopoly; Part III, "Economic Problems." In the last chapter of eight pages, "Social and Industrial Betterment" is discussed and five pages are devoted to the sociological program. But the reviewer can find nothing about the family, the church, or most of the other things that sociologists use for the purpose of differentiating their work from that of the economist. It is apparently a little textbook on economics, with some references to sociology to please those who think that subject should be "recognized."

**EDITOR'S NOTE.**—The following lists of new historical publications and of periodical articles occupy this month much more than the usual amount of space. Owing to conditions in the printing trades it was impossible to include the usual lists in our June issue. As many subscribers depend upon these lists for important information, it has been deemed best not to break the continuity of the lists, but to cover the full period of time in this issue.

### Books on History and Government Published in the United States from March 26 to August 27, 1921

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.  
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, James T. *The founding of New England*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. 482 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Allan, William. *History of the campaign of Gen. Thomas J. (Stonewall) Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, Nov. 4, 1861, to June 17, 1862*. Richmond, Va.: Southern Historical Society. \$3.15.
- Alvord, Clarence W. *The Illinois country, 1673 to 1818*. Chicago: McClurg. 524 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Andrews, Matthew P. *American history and government*. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 528 pp. \$2.00.
- Arnold, H. V. *The early history of the Devil's Lake Country*. Larimore, N. D. [The Author]: 105 pp. 15c.
- Barrows, Charles H. *The history of Springfield in Massachusetts for the young*. Springfield, Mass.: Conn. Valley Historical Society. 194 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Beard, C. A., and Beard, M. R. *History of the United States*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 663 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Belknap, Henry W. *Historic Salem: points of interest*. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 8 pp.
- Browne, William B. *The Mohawk Trail, its history and course*. North Adams, Mass.: [Author]. Box 432. 40 pp.
- Bull, Sidney A. *History of the town of Carlisle, Mass.: 1754-1920*. Cambridge, Mass.: Murray Printing Co. 365 pp. \$6.00.
- Bywater, Hector C. *Sea power in the Pacific; a study of the American-Japanese naval problem*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 334 pp. \$5.00, net.

- Chapin, Howard M. Rhode Island in the colonial wars [King George's War]. Providence, R. I.: R. I. Historical Society. 38 pp. \$2.25.
- Clark, George Rogers. The conquest of Illinois. Edited by Milo M. Quaife. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Son, Plymouth Court. 190 pp.
- Cole, Cyrenus. A history of the people of Iowa. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: The Torch Press. 588 pp. \$7.50.
- Coy, Owen C. The battle of San Pasqual [California]. Sacramento, Ca.: Cal. Hist. Survey Commission. 18 pp. (7½ p. bibl.)
- Davison, Helen M. Founders and builders of our nation. Chicago: Scott Foresman. 261 pp. \$1.00.
- Ferguson, Arthur H. A study guide in American history for high school students. Syracuse, N. Y.: Iroquois Pub. Co. 120 pp. 75c, net.
- Foster, William. The English factories in India, 1655-1660. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 440 pp. \$7.20.
- Fourteenth Census of the Population of the United States. N. Y.: Federal Trade Information Service. 43 pp. 50c.
- Garoutte, Endora. Study outline of California history. Sacramento, Cal.: State Librarian. 15pp. gratis.
- Guindon, Frederick A. Boston and her story. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 145 pp. \$1.00.
- Guitteau, W. B. Teachers' manual to accompany 'Our United States.' Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 76 pp. 48c, net.
- Haight, George I. Sketches of America and Americans. Chicago: Hanson Roach Fowler Co., 104 S. Michigan Ave. \$1.25.
- Hamilton, J. G. de R. and others. The free negro in North Carolina and some Colonial history of Craven County. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 74 pp.
- Handy, Seymour. An outline of American history. N. Y.: Holt. 97 pp. 48c net.
- Hart, Albert B. New American History. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 665 pp. (7 p. bibl.). \$1.96, net.
- Hasse, Adelaide R. Index to United States documents relating to foreign affairs, 1828-1861; in 3 parts. Part 3, R to Z. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Institution. \$7.00.
- Hawley, Walter A. The early days of Santa Barbara, California; from the first discoveries, . . . to December, 1846. Santa Barbara, Cal.: Schauer Printing Studio. 103 pp. \$1.00.
- Hayden, Ralston. The senate and treaties, 1789-1817. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Univ. of Mich. 237 pp. (9 p. bibl.) \$1.35.
- Iyenga, Tayolichi, and Sato, Kenoske. Japan and the California problem. N. Y.: Putnam. 249 pp. (7¼ p. bibl.) \$2.50, net.
- Knight, Sarah Kemble. The Journal of Madame Knight [on a journey from Boston to New York in 1704]. Boston: Small, Maynard. 72 pp. \$7.50, net.
- Libby, Orin G., editor. The Arikara of the campaign against the hostile Dakotas, June, 1876. Bismarck, N. D.: Hist. Soc. of North Dakota. 276 pp. \$3.00.
- McClintock, James H. Mormon settlement in Arizona. Phoenix, Ariz.: J. McClintock. 307 pp. \$2.10.
- McClure, Clarence H. History of Missouri; a text book for use in Elementary Schools. Chicago: A. S. Barnes Co. 268 pp. \$1.40.
- Muzey, David S. Readings in American history. Rev. edition. Boston: Ginn & Co., 604 pp.; \$2.40 net.
- Myers, Gustavus. Ye olden Blue laws. N. Y.: Century Co. 274 pp. (5¾ p. bibl.). \$2.00, net.
- Prescott, Della R. A day in a colonial home. Boston: M. Jones. 69 pp. 60c.
- Smith, Charles W., compiler. Pacific northwest Americana; a check-list of books and pamphlets. Revised and enlarged edition. N. Y.: H. W. Wilson Co. 327 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Smith, Edward C. A history of Lewis County, West Virginia. Weston, W. Va.: [The Author]. 427 pp. \$4.00.
- Stephenson, N. W. and Stephenson, M. T. A school history of the United States. Boston: Ginn & Co. 543 pp. \$1.60.
- Warner, Frances L. Pilgrim trails; a Plymouth-to-Provincetown sketch book. Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press. 47 pp. \$1.75, net.
- Waterman, Thomas T., and others. Native houses of Western North America. N. Y.: Museum of the American Indian Heye Foundation. 97 pp. (20 p. bibl.).
- Webb, Robert L. The romance of American life and progress. Phila.: Judson Press. 80 pp. 75c.
- Wroth, Lawrence C. A history of printing in Colonial Maryland. Balto.: The Typothetæ of Baltimore. \$3.00.
- Young, John R. Memoirs of John R. Young, Utah pioneer, 1847. Blanding, Utah. [The Author]. 41 pp. \$1.60.
- Zerfass, Samuel G. Souvenir book of the Ephrata cloister; complete history from . . . 1728 to the present time. Lititz, Pa.: John G. Zook. 84 pp. \$1.50.

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Adams, Louise E. W. A study in the commerce of Latium; from the early Iron age through the sixth century B. C. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College. 84 pp. 75c.
- Berry, Lillian G. Pictures of Roman life; lists of lantern slides illustrative of Roman life [etc], and Caesar's Gallic War. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana Univ. 18 pp. (½ p. bibl.).
- British Museum. Greek and Roman reliefs [15 pictorial post cards in an envelope] (set No. 47). N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 50c, net.
- Budge, Ernest A. W. The Babylonian story of the Deluge, and the Epic of Gilgamesh. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 58 pp. 45c.
- Herodotus. Herodotus; with an English translation by A. D. Godley. In 4 vols. Books 1 and 2. [Loeb Classical Library]. N. Y.: Putnam. 503 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Houston, M. G., and Hornblower, F. S. Ancient Egyptian, Assyrian, and Persian costumes and decorations. N. Y.: Macmillan, 89 pp. \$4.00.
- Jastrow, Morris. An old Babylonian version of the Gilgamesh epic. New Haven. Yale Univ. Press. 106 pp. \$2.50.
- Mackean, W. H. Christian monasticism in Egypt; to the close of the Fourth Century. N. Y.: Macmillan. 160 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Morgan, J. Pierpont, Library. Cylinders and other ancient Oriental seals in the library of J. Pierpont Morgan. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 129 pp. 60c.
- Sallust, Gaius Sallustius Crispus. Sallust, with an English translation by J. C. Rolfe. [Loeb Classical Library]. N. Y.: Putnam. 534 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Wainwright, G. A. Balabish. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 78 pp. \$19.00.
- Winlock, Herbert E. Bas-reliefs from the temple of Rameses I at Abydos. N. Y.: Metropolitan Museum of Art. 54 pp. \$3.50.
- Xenophon, Hellenica, books 6 and 7; Anabasis, books 1-3, (Loeb Classical library). N. Y.: Putnam. 514 pp. \$2.25, net.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Adams, George B. Constitutional history of England. N. Y.: Holt. 518 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00, net.
- American (The), Commission on conditions in Ireland. Interim report. N. Y.: Am. Com. on Conditions in Ireland. 501. Fifth Ave. 144 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Bulkeley, J. P. The British Empire; a short history. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 228 pp. \$1.60.
- Einstein, Lewis D. Tudor ideals. N. Y.: Harcourt Brace & Co. 358 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Fisk, Harvey E. The Dominion of Canada, its growth and achievement. N. Y.: The Bankers Trust Co. 174 pp. Gratis.
- Fletcher, Joseph H. Harrogate and Knaresborough. 124 pp. — Pontefract, 128 pp. (The story of the English Towns Series). N. Y.: Macmillan. Each \$1.60, net.
- Foster, William, editor. Early travels in India, 1583-1619. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 352 pp. \$5.65.
- Gerould, James T. Sources of English history of the 17th century, 1603-1689. Minneapolis, Minn.: Univ. of Minn. 565 pp. \$4.00.

- Higham, C. S. S. The development of the Leeward Islands under the Restoration, 1660-1688; a study of the foundations of the old colonial system. N. Y.: Macmillan. 266 pp. \$9.00, net.
- Higham, C. S. S. History of the British Empire. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 276 pp. \$1.50, net.
- MacKennon, James. The social and industrial history of Scotland from the Union to the present time. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 297 pp. \$6.00, net.
- Mawer, Allen. English place-name study. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 14 pp. 70c.
- Morgan, R. B., editor. Readings in English social history from contemporary literature. Vol. 1, from pre-Roman days to A. D. 1272. Vol. 2, A. D. 1272-1485. N. Y.: Macmillan. 117, 109 pp. Each \$1.40, net.
- Morris, Homer L. Parliamentary franchise reform in England from 1885 to 1918. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 208 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Murray, Robert H.. Ireland, 1494-1603. 32 pp. Ireland, 1603-1714. 48 pp. Ireland, 1714-1829. 47 pp. [Helps for students of history, Nos. 33, 34, 35.] N. Y.: Macmillan. Each 40c, net.
- Pearce, Ernest H. Walter de Menlok, Abbot of Westminster. N. Y. Macmillan. 236 pp. \$4.75, net.
- Pollen, John H. Sources of the history of Roman Catholics in England, Scotland, and Ireland, from the Reformation period to that of Emancipation. [Helps for students of history.] N. Y. Macmillan. 47 pp. 50c net.
- Roberts, K. E., and Roberts, R. E. Peterborough. (The story of English Towns). N. Y.: 128 pp. \$1.60, net.
- Roberts, R. A. The report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. [Helps for students of History.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 91 pp. 90c, net.
- Seymour, St. John D. The Puritans in Ireland, 1647-1661, N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 240 pp. \$6.25.
- Smith, William. History of the post office in British North America, 1639-1870. N. Y.: Macmillan. 356 pp. \$8.00 net.
- Ward, Justice B. C. William Pardow, of the Company of Jesus. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 274 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Waters, Charlotte M. A school economic history of England, 1066-1750. N. Y. Oxford Univ. 316 pp. \$2.50.
- Winstanley, Lillian. Hamlet and the Scottish succession; being an examination of the relations of the play of Hamlet to the Scottish succession and the Essex conspiracy. N. Y.: Macmillan. 188 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Wrong, George M. The United States of Canada; a political study. N. Y.: The Abingdon Press. 191 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Gibbons, Herbert A. The foundation of the Ottoman Empire . . . 1300-1403. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 379 pp. \$4.75.
- Gooch, George P. The French revolution. [Helps for students of history, No. 29.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 47 pp. 25c, net.
- Hassall, Arthur. European History, chronologically arranged, 476-1920. New edition. N. Y. Macmillan. 439 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Hearnshaw, F. J. C., editor. Macmillan's Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. N. Y.: Macmillan. 30 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Iskander, Abarius. The Lebanon in turmoil; Syria and the powers in 1860. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 203 pp. \$6.50.
- Luke, Harry C. Cyprus under the Turks, 1571-1878. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 281 pp. \$3.85.
- Marcovitch, Lazare, editor. Serbia and Europe; 1914-1920. N. Y.: Macmillan. 355 pp. \$5.00 set.
- Morgan, William T. and Townsend, W. T. A syllabus in Modern European history from Charlemagne to the present, 800-1920. Bloomington, Ind.: Univ. of Ind. 154 pp. 75c, net.
- O'Reilly, Elizabeth B. How France built her cathedrals; a study in the 12th and 13th centuries. N. Y.: Harper. 611 pp. \$6.00, net.
- Ransome, Arthur. The crisis in Russia. N. Y.: Huebsch, 201 pp. \$1.60, net.
- Robinson, J. H., and Beard, Charles A. History of Europe; the 18th and 19th centuries; the opening of the 20th century and the World War. Boston: Ginn & Co. 616 pp. (3¼ p. bibl.). \$1.96, net.
- Ross, Edward A. The Russian Bolshevik revolution. N. Y.: Century Co. 301 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Russell, C. H. S. The tradition of the Roman Empire; a sketch of European history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 280 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Schwartz, M. A. The voice of Russia. N. Y.: Dutton. 223 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Taylor, F. L. The art of war in Italy, 1494-1529. N. Y.: Macmillan. 228 pp. \$5.00, net.
- Townsend, Mary E. Origins of modern German colonialism, 1871-1885. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 205 pp. (4¾ p. bibl.). \$2.25, net.
- Turner, Edward R. Europe since 1870. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 580 pp. \$3.00, net.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Abbott, George F. Under the Turk in Constantinople: N. Y.: Macmillan. 418 pp. \$5.00.
- Bakeless, John. The economic causes of modern war; a study of the period 1878-1918. N. Y.: Moffett, Yard. 265 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Booth, Cecily. Cosimo I, Duke of Florence. N. Y.: Macmillan. 325 pp. (4½ p. bibl.). \$10.00, net.
- Brailsford, Henry N. The Russian workers' republic. N. Y.: Harper. 274 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Cammaerts, Emile. A history of Belgium from the Roman invasion to the present day. N. Y.: Appleton. 357 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Clapham, J. H. The economic development of France and Germany, 1815-1914. N. Y.: Macmillan. 420 pp. \$6.00, net.
- DuPont, Henry A. The story of the Huguenots. Cambridge, Mass.: The Riverside Press. 62 pp. Privately printed.
- Elson, Henry W. Modern times and the living past. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 756 pp. \$2.40 net.
- Ephimenco, A. R. A short history of Russia. N. Y.: Macmillan. 157 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Francis, David R. Russia from the American Embassy, April 1916-November, 1918. N. Y.: Scribner. 261 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Angell, Norman. The fruits of Victory; a sequel to "The Great Illusion." N. Y.: Century Co. 336 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Bingham, Hiram. An explorer in the air-service. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 260 pp. \$10.00, net.
- Bogart, E. L. War costs and their financing. N. Y.: Appleton. 509 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Crowell, Benedict and Wilson, R. F. How America went to war; in 6 vols. Vols. 1, 2 and 3. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. \$42.00, net the set.
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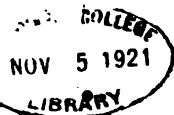
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Volume XII.  
Number 8.

PHILADELPHIA, NOVEMBER, 1921.

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Number 9.

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## Italy and Albanian Independence\*

BY RAYMOND J. SONTAG, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

One of the most interesting of the minor diplomatic struggles of the period following the Congress of Berlin has been brought to a close, at least temporarily, by the treaty recently signed by Italy and Albania. Much has been written in the last few years concerning the conflict of ambitions in Albania, but, with a few notable exceptions, these writings show but slight grasp of the fundamental reason for this rivalry. The most important, and the least understood, element in the international aspect of the Albanian problem is the close connection between possession of the Albanian coast and supremacy in the Adriatic. A glance at the map will show that the heel of Italy is in a sense the most vulnerable part of the peninsula, for on the east coast of that heel there is not a single harbor worthy of the name. And directly across the Adriatic, less than fifty miles from Otranto, is Valona, a squalid, dirty Albanian town with a harbor which, with a little development and fortification, could be made to dominate the entrance to the Adriatic. Obviously Italy could not tolerate the occupation of this key position by a rival power. The situation was equally delicate during the period from 1878 to 1914 for Italy's ally and traditional enemy, Austria-Hungary. Valona in the hands of a hostile nation would have meant a landlocked Austrian Empire. The primary aim of each of these powers, therefore, was to see that the other did not acquire a dominant influence in this strategic position. The extremists in both countries hoped for even more than this merely negative security. If the Adriatic were ever to become an Italian lake, as the Irredentists hoped, Albania must become part of Italy; Austria, on the other hand, had great hope of bringing Albania under Hapsburg control by means of the projected railway through the Sanjak of Novibazar.

The rivalry of the two powers in the eastern Adriatic began immediately after the unification of Italy. For a time Austria more than maintained her position. By the Treaty of Berlin she was confirmed in the control of the Sanjak of Novibazar, a strip of enormous strategic value, which insured the separation of Serbia and Montenegro, and opened a channel for the passage of Austrian propaganda into Albania and Macedonia. The situation changed,

however, with the creation of the Triple Alliance. Austria hoped to gain two negative but important advantages from this alliance: freedom from the danger of hostile Italian intervention in case of an Austro-Russian war, and the cessation of the Irredentist propaganda in Italy. To what extent these Austrian expectations were justified it is beyond the scope of this study to determine. The point to be noted here is that Italy demanded greater and greater concessions in return, practically all of which were granted under pressure from Berlin.<sup>1</sup> The original treaty of the Triple Alliance (1882) made no direct mention of Balkan affairs. Five years later, Italy, Great Britain, and Austria-Hungary undertook by an exchange of notes, to agree to maintain the *status quo* in the Balkans, without, however, as Lord Salisbury was very careful to make plain, "determining beforehand the character which the co-operation . . . ought in any particular contingency to take."<sup>2</sup> While Austrian participation in this agreement was still being discussed, the Triple Alliance was renewed. This time Italy succeeded in securing a separate treaty with Austria providing for the occupation of Balkan territory only "after a previous agreement between the two Powers, based upon the principle of a reciprocal compensation for every advantage, territorial or other, which each of them might obtain beyond the present *status quo*, and giving satisfaction to the interests and well founded claims of the two Parties."<sup>3</sup> It is not at all improbable that Austrian statesmen were influenced in agreeing to this convention by their knowledge of the already consummated British-Italian *rapprochement*.<sup>4</sup> Similarly, when the third treaty of the Triple Alliance was made in 1891, Austria was at a disadvantage because of the increasingly manifest friendship between France and Russia. Italy, therefore, was in an excellent position to secure further concessions. This time the Austro-Italian Balkan agreement was incorporated as an integral part of the main treaty, which was now put into the general form which it retained until 1914.<sup>5</sup>

The first direct reference to Albania in the correspondence between Italy and Austria was made in 1900 in connection with an interpellation in the Italian Chamber of Deputies. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, Signor Venosta, answered the question by stating that Austria and Italy were working for the maintenance of the *status quo* in Albania. He communicated this reply to Vienna, and sought con-

\*The writer wishes to express his indebtedness to Prof. A. H. Lybber, under whose direction was prepared the study of which this is a part.

firmation, not only of this statement of policy but also of the oral agreement reached with the Austrian Foreign Minister in 1897 by which the two powers agreed "in case the present state of affairs could not be preserved, . . . to use our efforts to the end that the modifications relative thereto should be made in the direction of autonomy."<sup>8</sup> This position, accepted by Austria, was maintained through all the subsequent Balkan difficulties.

By these successive steps Italy had succeeded in putting herself on an equal basis with Austria in the determination of Albanian affairs. Further than this neither could allow the other to go, and a stalemate resulted which obtained official recognition in Italy in a speech made before the Italian Chamber of Deputies in 1905 by Foreign Minister Tittoni:

"Albania has no great importance in itself, but its littoral and its ports are all-important, as they would assure to Austria or Italy, if either of the two powers possessed them, the uncontested military supremacy in the Adriatic. Now, neither can Italy allow Austria such supremacy, nor could Austria to Italy, and if ever one of them should claim it, the other would have to use every means to oppose it. This is the logic of the situation. Therefore, the two states, preferring and sincerely desiring peace and the maintenance of the alliance, have both renounced any eventual occupation of Albania in case of the perturbation of the *status quo*."<sup>9</sup>

At this time neither power had any pronounced advantage. If Italy had no good harbor on the Strait of Otranto, the Austrian port at Cattaro was unfit for naval use because dominated by Montenegrin forts. Austria's real naval center was at Pola, somewhat farther from the Strait than the Italian base at Taranto.<sup>8</sup>

Within Albania itself Italian influence was increasing steadily in 1907. Here the rivalry between the two countries was largely commercial, religious, and educational. Until the beginning of the century the Austrian Lloyd steamers had held a practical monopoly of the rather meagre commerce of Albania, but by that time the Italians were already commercially entrenched at Valona and gradually spread their sphere of influence as far north as Durazzo. By 1918 Italian was the language of trade in both these towns.<sup>9</sup> In the religious field Austria was not easy to supplant. Treaties with both the Porte and the Vatican guaranteed her position as protector of Albanian Catholics, and a large number of the native priests were educated in Austria and received regular annuities from the Austrian government.<sup>10</sup> The Jesuits and Franciscans who had charge of the numerous schools maintained in Albania by the Dual Monarchy were far more active in spreading Austrian than Catholic propaganda. The Church being under the control of Austria, Italy was forced to rely largely on secular weapons. These proved in the long run, however, to be the more effective among the essentially non-religious Albanians. The schools maintained by Austria were open only to Catholics and in many ways tended to increase religious discord. The Italian institutions, on the other hand, were usually

under the control of laymen and were attended by Moslems and Catholics alike.<sup>11</sup>

The Austro-Italian agreement of 1900 was put to the test in 1913. Despite the fact that it was generally known that Austria was determined to prevent Serbia from reaching the sea and that Italy looked with disfavor on the further progress of Greece to the north, the agreements between the Balkan states provided for the partition of Albania. The Balkan Allies, it would seem, relied on the combination of two factors for the attainment of their ends—suddenness of attack and Russian support. They trusted that the rapid completion of the conquest of Albania would permit them to confront the Triple Alliance with a *fait accompli* before a protest could be made; if any opposition were then shown, Russia could be relied upon to back up the claims of the Slav powers. Unfortunately for Serbia especially, neither calculation was justified by the event. Delayed partly by Turkish and Albanian opposition, but even more by the appalling lack of efficiency in their own army, the Montenegrins did not invest Scutari until late in November, while the Greeks had even less success in the south. The importance of this delay and of the subsequent resistance of Scutari and Janina can scarcely be overestimated.<sup>12</sup> During these precious weeks Austria and Italy were able, not only to stir up a respectable amount of bellicose sentiment at home, but also to line up the other member of the Triple Alliance for an autonomous Albania.

The sentiment of the Triple Allies with regard to the Albanian question was crystallized early in November by the note which M. Poincaré, then premier of France, addressed to the Powers asking for expressions of "disinterestedness" in regard to the territorial questions involved in the Balkan struggle.<sup>13</sup> This request, which was euphemistically referred to as "unfortunate" even by the Entente press within a few days of its publication, was received with a storm of disapproval by the Triple Alliance. Public agitation began immediately in the Italian and Viennese press in favor of Albanian independence, and Germany showed every sign of supporting her allies in this policy.<sup>14</sup> Premier Asquith sought to calm the storm in his Guildhall speech of November 9. In this he pleaded against "the raising and pressing of isolated questions, which, if handled separately and at once, seem likely to lead to irreconcilable divergences, but which might assume a different and perhaps a more tractable aspect if they are reserved to be dealt with from the wider point of view of a general settlement."<sup>15</sup> This sensible suggestion had a noticeably sobering effect, but the Austrian press was inclined to look somewhat askance at another portion of the same speech, where, amid wild applause, according to the *Times*, Mr. Asquith proclaimed that "upon one thing I believe the general opinion of Europe to be unanimous—that the victors are not to be robbed of the fruits which cost them so dear."<sup>16</sup> As a reply to this the semi-official press of Vienna openly stated that Ismail Kemal Bey, later head of the Provisional Government of Albania, had

received assurances from the Austrian government that Albania would be set up as an independent state.<sup>17</sup> Italian governmental feeling as shown in the ministerial press reflected views very similar to those of Austria, and Germany, despite Socialist anti-Austrian demonstrations, went to the length of securing assurances from the Russian foreign minister to the effect that Russia would not go to war over the question of an Adriatic port for Serbia.<sup>18</sup>

England again tried to calm the storm by suggesting early in December that the larger international questions created by the Balkan War should be settled by an informal conference of the ambassadors of the Powers held at some European capital. After some blustering this invitation was accepted by the Triple Allies. The meetings of the ambassadors were held at London and went on without regard to the wrangling which broke out between Turkey and the Balkan Allies immediately after the opening of the peace congress. All the sittings of the council were secret; even rumors concerning their activities were surprisingly few. On December 20, the first important results were announced in the following communiqué:

"The Ambassadors have recommended to their governments, and the latter have accepted, the principle of Albanian autonomy, together with a provision guaranteeing to Serbia commercial access to the Adriatic. The six governments have agreed in principle on these two points."<sup>19</sup>

After this announcement there was a slight lull in the discussion of the Albanian question, but shortly after the opening of the new year the question of boundaries came to the front and for a time threatened to disrupt Austro-Italian harmony. Italy was in sympathy with the aims of Montenegro, largely because of the relationship between the royal families of the two countries, and would gladly have seen Scutari joined to the Black Mountain. This arrangement met with the violent opposition of Austria, however, and after a short period of uncertainty Italy fell into line with her ally. The southern frontier did not cause any great trouble at first. Italy was willing to compromise so long as her own interests were not vitally involved, while Greece was too busy consolidating her position in Thrace to put up much of a fight—yet. In August, therefore, a tentative boundary was fixed, giving Albania control of the sea-coast as far south as Cape Stylos. Later Greece endeavored to change this decision by aiding the Epirote revolt, but Italy was determined that Greece should not control the northern part of the Strait of Corfu and refused to permit the severing of Northern Epirus from Albania.

Much good ink has been wasted in hysterical damning and praising of the Powers for the establishment of an independent Albania. Many reputable writers go even farther than Miss Newbigin, who hints that "some at least of the Powers foresaw that an independent Albania might lead to quarelling among the Balkan Powers," and that "their motive in supporting its erection was not wholly uninfluenced by this possibility."<sup>20</sup> Apostles of the millennium, on

the other hand, hailed this as the beginning of the era of self-determination for all peoples. It is not necessary to believe, however, either that there was a diabolical plot back of the decision of December 20, or that the Powers had suddenly become disinterested philanthropists. As shown above, the primary interest of both Italy and Austria was to prevent the eastern Adriatic littoral from coming into the hands of a potentially hostile power. Greece and Serbia were not then, in themselves, dangerous neighbors. But behind Serbia loomed the omnipresent Russian menace, and in a Greek Strait of Corfu Italy saw a naval base for any maritime power in alliance with Greece against Italy. Other factors, notably Austrian resentment at the collapse of her schemes to secure an outlet on the Ægean, were doubtless present, but they merely strengthened a policy long since determined upon.

Selfish this policy certainly was, and there is every reason to believe with Professor Hazen that the Albanian "fiasco" was directly responsible for the Second Balkan War.<sup>21</sup> We might go so far as to say with Mr. Dominian that "the inhabitants of Albania are totally devoid of national feeling."<sup>22</sup> But even then it would not necessarily follow, as Mr. Dominian further believes, that "under these circumstances, partition of the country between Greece and Serbia might not have been incompatible with national aspirations."<sup>23</sup> Balkan history for centuries has centered around the attempts of subject people to secure their freedom. To divide Albania between her neighbors would be merely to start another chapter in the bloody story. Despite the lack of national solidarity, the strength of the Albanian hatred for Greek and Serb alike has been strikingly manifest at least since the Congress of Berlin. That the Greeks and Serbs themselves realized this, and returned the feeling, is shown by the measures taken to exterminate the Albanian elements in the areas secured by them in 1913.<sup>24</sup>

The Powers are justly to be censured, however, for abandoning the new state immediately after its creation. By the *Statut Organique* under which an independent Albania was established, most of the governmental powers were to be exercised by an International Commission of Control.<sup>25</sup> Through the indifference of the rest of the Powers the Commission soon became a centre of Italian and Austrian intrigue. In a summary of the causes which led to the collapse of the Albanian government in 1914, the efforts of Italy and Austria to secure control of the new state must be placed well to the fore. In this struggle Austria won the first victory by securing the election of the German William of Wied to the position of Hereditary Prince of Albania, but Italy retained a formidable henchman in the person of Essad Pasha, possibly the most powerful, and certainly the most unscrupulous, figure in Albania. After a kaleidoscopic succession of events which earned for Albania the sobriquet of the "comic opera kingdom," William of Wied gave up the fight and returned to Germany (Sept. 1914) and Essad soon became the ruler of Albania, under the protection of Italy.

By this time the field of operation of the Great War had extended so as to include Albania. While the attention of the Powers was engaged elsewhere, the Greeks openly took possession of Northern Epirus and the Italians occupied first Saseno, an island off the Albanian coast, and then Valona itself, under the pretense of defending the integrity of Albania from the menace of Greece.<sup>26</sup> In the fall of 1915 began the great southern push of the Central Powers, and by the spring of 1916 all of Albania north of a line from Valona to Lake Ochrida was in the hands of the Central Powers, there to remain for over two years.

During the period of deadlock an almost continuous struggle for control of the area under Allied occupation went on between Italy on the one hand and Greece, aided by France, on the other. The French, with headquarters at Salonika, gradually moved northward until December, 1916, when they reached Korcha. In order to secure control of this city the French commander agreed to recognize the independence of the "Autonomous Albanian Province of Korcha." A government composed largely of Albanians was set up, and the limits of the new "province" were extended as the French advanced.<sup>27</sup> As soon as the French felt themselves firmly established, however, the Albanian government was dissolved and the district practically turned over to the Greeks.<sup>28</sup> The Italians had started a movement to the south about the same time that the French began to push northward, and, despite Greek protests, had taken possession of all of southern Albania by the end of 1916.

Again, as in 1913, the conflicting aspirations of the Powers proved the best safeguard of Albanian interests. No sooner had the Italians occupied Northern Epirus than rumors began to circulate concerning the contents of the secret Treaty of London. Italy, fearing that her good faith might be in some degree compromised in the eyes of the Albanians by the knowledge that she had secretly agreed to the partition of Albania while her statesmen were proclaiming that the preservation of the integrity of the Albanian state was one of the Italian war aims, and, perhaps, hoping by prompt action to convert possible Albanian hostility into support, decided to act in advance of the publication of the treaty.<sup>29</sup> On June 3, 1917, General Ferrero solemnly proclaimed, "in accordance with the orders of His Majesty, King Victor Emmanuel, the unity and independence of the whole of Albania, under the shield and protection of the Italian Kingdom."<sup>30</sup> During the following year every effort was made by the Italians to strengthen their hold in Albania. Military roads were constructed all through the occupied area, schools were opened, public improvements were made in the cities, and aid was given to farmers.<sup>31</sup>

The great Allied drive in the Balkans began in June of 1918. By the middle of October practically all of Albania was in the hands of the Italians, who remained in possession of the country pending the action of the Peace Conference.<sup>32</sup>

In order to understand the relations between Albania and Italy after the armistice it is necessary to go back to the negotiations which preceded the entrance of Italy into the Great War. In April of 1915 the representatives of the Central Powers and the Italian government drew up a treaty which was to serve as the basis for Italian participation on the side of the Teutonic Powers. By this agreement Italy was to secure Valona in full sovereignty, while Austria agreed to "cease completely to take any interest in Albania."<sup>33</sup> At the last minute Austria refused to accept the terms of the proposal unless their execution were deferred until after the conclusion of hostilities. This arrangement was not acceptable to the Italians, who at once came to terms with the Entente. Two articles of the resulting Treaty of London referred to Albania:

"Art. 6: Italy will secure in absolute property Valona, the Island of Saseno, and as much territory as would be required to secure their military safety. . . ."

"Art. 7: Italy . . . is not, in the case of the creation of a small autonomous state in Albania, to resist the possible desire of France, Great Britain, and Russia to distribute among Montenegro, Serbia, and Greece the northern and southern parts of Albania. . . ."<sup>34</sup>

By 1918 the contents of the Treaty of London were generally known in Albania and after the armistice a statement of the policy of Italy was eagerly awaited. The action of General Ferrero in 1917 was at first regarded as a modification of the 1915 agreement, but when the Italian government maintained an ominous silence, the Albanians began to take alarm. Late in December a more or less informal gathering of Albanian notables at Durazzo resulted in the formation of a cabinet which succeeded after a time in securing the reluctant recognition of the Italian government.<sup>35</sup> At the Peace Conference, however, Italy declared herself the representative of Albanian interests and refused to grant passports to the delegates appointed by the Albanians themselves. Friction gradually developed within Albania between the natives and their Italian "protectors," and in April a revolt began which dragged on through the summer.<sup>36</sup> In December the Supreme Council handed down its dictum on the Albanian question, providing for a frontier rectification to the south in favor of Greece, and an Italian mandate for the rest of the country. The Jugo-Slavs were to be allowed commercial rights and the privilege of building railways in northern Albania. This arrangement not only met with the inevitable objections of the Albanians, but also provoked the determined opposition of the Serbs, who refused to tolerate the continued occupation of Albania by Italy.<sup>37</sup> Again, as in 1913 and 1917, Albania profited by the jealousies of her neighbors. A second attempt at partition was made in January (1920), approximately following the lines of the Treaty of London, but the Slavs again refused to hear of any terms short of the evacuation of Albania by Italy.<sup>38</sup>

The willing participation of the Italians in this bargaining destroyed the good feeling towards Italy which had grown up in Albania during the war. As soon as the terms of the second proposed agreement between Italy, Jugo-Slavia, and Greece became known, the Albanian assembly met at Lusknja and elected a new cabinet, which was pledged to work against foreign domination.<sup>39</sup> Durazzo being held by the Italians, the new government made Tirana its capital. Essad Pasha, who had for once misjudged the trajectory which the proverbial cat was to make in jumping, sent his followers against Tirana, where they were decisively defeated. All other native opposition then subsided. Aided by a large force of Albanians who had been trained in the service of Italy during the Great War, the Tirana government gradually extended its control over practically all the interior of Albania.<sup>40</sup> By the end of May the irritating and effective guerrilla warfare carried on by the Albanians had compelled the Italians to withdraw from the interior of the country to the coast towns. A series of carefully planned uprisings in these towns was so successful that by the middle of June, Valona alone remained in Italian hands.<sup>41</sup>

Opposition to Italian rule in Albania now began to appear in a new quarter. On June 26, a battalion of Italian troops which was embarking at Ancona for Valona mutinied. When an effort was made by the military authorities to enforce disciplinary measures, rioting began and assumed such serious proportions as to precipitate a crisis in the Italian Chamber of Deputies. The Socialists took up the cause of the recalcitrant soldiers and began a general campaign against the Albanian "adventure," which, they asserted, was "dragging the country into fresh slaughter."<sup>42</sup> In view of the delicate industrial situation, the Giolitti government was forced to promise that no more troops would be sent to Albania, and that peace would be made.

A commission was sent late in June to negotiate with the Tirana government, but failed to effect an agreement. A second effort succeeded, however, and on August 5, a protocol was signed between the two states. By this agreement Italy gave up her claims in Albania under the Treaty of London, recognized the independence and integrity of Albania, and surrendered the city of Valona. The island of Saseno at the mouth of the Bay of Valona was retained by Italy as a naval base.<sup>43</sup>

This treaty in all probability closes the struggle for the eastern gate to the Adriatic, at least so far as Italy and Austria are concerned. In the earlier stages of this contest the dominating motive of both countries was self-defense, the fear of a closed Adriatic Sea. Not satisfied with the stalemate created by the agreement of 1900, however, the two powers resorted to methods which were decidedly reprehensible. In the intrigue carried on within Albania itself by Austria and Italy in order to strengthen their position we have one of the prime causes of both the Young Turk Revolution and the first Balkan War and in the failure of the two powers to effect a stable settlement in

1912 is to be found the chief cause of the second Balkan War and, through the disaffection of Serbia, the occasion for the outrages of Sarajevo. The policy of Italy, after 1914, moreover, can not be justified even on the ground of military necessity. It was, as the Italian Socialists recognized, frankly imperialistic, and the successful resistance of the Albanians to Italian domination should be a source of gratification to those who still cling to that much-abused expression—the rights of small nations.

<sup>1</sup> Until very recently it was impossible to trace accurately the course of Austro-Italian rivalry in Albania. Much of the obscurity has been cleared away, however, by the publication of the series of treaties centering around the Triple Alliance (Pribram, A. F., ed. *The Secret Treaties of Austria-Hungary, 1879-1914*. English edition by A. C. Coolidge. Cambridge, 1920.) While this collection contains only documents found in the Austrian archives, the Adriatic question was of such vital importance to the Hapsburg monarchy that there is but slight possibility that further important material exists. Some of the treaties in this work have been published elsewhere, but for convenience in reference it has seemed best to use but the one source wherever possible.

<sup>2</sup> Op. cit., p. 103.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p. 108.

<sup>4</sup> G. P. Gooch, writing on "Europe before the War" in the English Journal *History* for April, 1921, says of this agreement: "In 1887, Kalnoky, the Foreign Minister (of Austria), determined to assert himself . . . he turned to Italy and England; and the three Powers signed an agreement to maintain the *status quo* in the Eastern Mediterranean and the Black Sea. Though it was generally known that we had made a treaty with Italy, the nature of the pact and its Austrian authorship have only now been revealed." The documents given by Pribram and the statements of Pribram himself, however, do not substantiate this view. The Anglo-Italian agreement was in effect for over a month before Austria acceded to it. (Pribram, pp. 95, 99.) Further, the Austrian copy of the Anglo-Italian treaty was not received for a full week after its consummation and Kalnoky thanked Salisbury for notifying him of the terms of the agreement. (Ibid., pp. 95, 99.) Pribram's inference from these facts was that Italy had "made certain agreements with England, soon after concurred in by Austria-Hungary." (Introduction, p. 10.) As Gooch does not give any authorities for his interpretation except Pribram, and as a thorough examination of the latest diplomatic histories throws no more light on the matter, it seems fairly certain that the negotiations were initiated by Italy.

<sup>5</sup> Pribram, pp. 150-163.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid., p. 197.

<sup>7</sup> Tittoni, Tommasa: *Italy's Foreign and Colonial Policy*. English edition by San Severino, Baron Bernardo Quaranta di. London, 1914, p. 18.

<sup>8</sup> Peacock, W.: *Italy and Albania*, Contemporary Review, Vol. 107, p. 362.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., pp. 363-64.

<sup>10</sup> Gibert, Frederic: *Les Pays d'Albanie et Leur Histoire*, Paris, 1914, pp. 35-36.

<sup>11</sup> Woods, H. C.: *The Danger Zone of Europe*, London, 1911, pp. 91-93.

<sup>12</sup> "The resistance of the garrison of Yanina to the Greeks and the resistance of the garrison of Scutari to the Serbs, had more direct effect on the political results of the war than all the bloody battles and combats in the field. For it was the resistance of these garrisons that made it possible for Europe to establish an autonomous Albania."—Courtney of Penwith, ed.; *Nationalism and War in the Near East*, Oxford, 1915, p. 201.

<sup>13</sup> *The London Times*, 1912, Nov. 2, p. 5. Col. 1.

- <sup>24</sup> Ibid., Nov. 4, p. 6, col. 1; Nov. 6, p. 7, col. 1.  
<sup>25</sup> Ibid., Nov. 11, p. 7, col. 1.  
<sup>26</sup> Ibid., Nov. 11, p. 9, col. 9.  
<sup>27</sup> Ibid., Nov. 11, p. 7, col. 1.  
<sup>28</sup> Ibid., Nov. 15, p. 5, col. 2.  
<sup>29</sup> Ibid., Dec. 11, p. 8, col. 1.  
<sup>30</sup> Newbligin, M. I.; *Geographical Aspects of Balkan Problems*, N. Y., 1915, p. 31.  
<sup>31</sup> Hazen, C. D.; *Modern Europe*, N. Y., 1920, pp. 674, 677.  
<sup>32</sup> Dominian, Leon; *Frontiers of Language and Nationality in Europe*, N. Y., 1917, p. 194.  
<sup>33</sup> Ibid., p. 195.  
<sup>34</sup> V. *Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix Internationale; Enquête dans les Balkans, Rapport*, Paris, 1914.  
<sup>35</sup> Martens, G. Fr. de; *Nouveau Recueil General de Traites, Troisieme Serie*, Tome IX., Leipzig, 1919, pp. 650-50.  
<sup>36</sup> "By this peaceful occupation a military position was secured that later became an important naval station for the Allies, as well as a strategical and tactical base of such importance that had it fallen into the hands of the enemy, the great military romance of the Balkans, if played at all, would have occupied a far more narrow stage, and the whole of western Albania would have been thrown open to the Germans." Brig. Gen. G. P. Scriven, United States military observer with the Italian army, in *New York Times*, 1919, May 25.  
<sup>37</sup> Chekrezi, Constantine; *Albania, Past and Present*, N. Y., 1920, p. 160.  
<sup>38</sup> Durham, M. E.; *Albania and the Powers. Living Age*, Vol. 309, p. 389.  
<sup>39</sup> H. K. Moderwell says in this connection that "the Russians were proclaiming the rights of peoples to self-determination. Trotsky was about to spread copies of the Pact of London to the four ends of the earth; even in primitive Albania, without telegraphs or newspapers, the news would eventually penetrate." (*Nation*, Vol. CXI., p. 399.) The fact that the Bolsheviks did not come into power for some five months after the Italian proclamation of June 3 would seem to raise doubts as to the accuracy of Mr. Moderwell's statement. The rumors concerning the provisions of the

Treaty of London were probably spread by a power more vitally interested in Albania than was Russia.

<sup>40</sup> Chekrezi, op. cit., pp. 161-62.

Chekrezi believes this action to have been taken merely as a fulfillment of the war aims of the Italians. But the coincidence between the announcement of June 3 and the publication of the Treaty of London, and the subsequent actions of the Italians would both seem to exclude any such lofty motives.

<sup>41</sup> Scriven, op. cit.

Mr. N. J. Cassavetes, director of the Pan-Epirotic Union of America, an organization favoring the union of Northern Epirus with Greece, replied to this interview with a vitriolic diatribe against the Italian rule in Albania: "Italian occupation assumed the form of persecution of Greek nationalism. It first attacked the Greek schools, which were native institutions, reared and supported solidly by native Christian Northern Epirotes. . . . The gendarmerie was recruited from Mohammedans and commanded by leaders of Albanian bands who ground down the Greek peasants and committed crimes and outrages without name." *New York Times*, 1919, June 24.

<sup>42</sup> *Current History*, *New York Times*, Aug., 1919, p. 211.

<sup>43</sup> Ibid., Nov., 1919, p. 250.

<sup>44</sup> Ibid., Nov., 1919, p. 253.

This is the text as published by the Bolshevik government.

<sup>45</sup> *New York Times*, 1919, January 25.

<sup>46</sup> Ibid., May 1.

<sup>47</sup> Woods, H. C.; *Some Adriatic Problems, Contemporary Review*, Vol. 117, pp. 641-42.

<sup>48</sup> Chekrezi, C. A.; *Italy and Albania at Loggerheads*, *Current History*, *New York Times*, Vol. 12, p. 583.

<sup>49</sup> Ibid., p. 584.

<sup>50</sup> *Chicago Daily News*, 1920, July 2, p. 5.

<sup>51</sup> Chekrezi, op. cit., p. 584.

<sup>52</sup> V. Documents in *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 118, pp. 276-80.

<sup>53</sup> *Chicago Daily News*, 1920, August 7.

## History for History's Sake

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As all the world knows, the chief purpose of education is the making of good citizens. And good citizens, I take it, are those who are developed to their highest capacity, mentally, physically, morally, spiritually. One of the important ways of accomplishing this development is by the use of certain branches of learning—literature, history, geography, science, and mathematics. The formula "History for history's sake" does not mean, therefore, that history is an end in itself; like all other subjects in the curriculum, it is but a means to an end, that end being the development of the individual for social usefulness. So much by way of educational platitudes in order to prevent at the outset a possible misconception of the meaning of the title to this article.

By "History for history's sake" is meant merely this: the educational value of history lies in its intrinsic qualities; the inculcation of those qualities should be the controlling aim of the teacher; if history possesses no such qualities it should no longer be taught in the public schools. No particular orig-

inality is claimed for the ideas hereafter set forth. As Meredith says, "Our new thoughts have thrilled dead bosoms," but for reasons which follow, it is valuable occasionally 'to gae o'er the fundamentals,' as the old Scotch lady with the ear trumpet said so alarmingly to the new minister when he entered her room on his introductory visit."<sup>1</sup>

Little argument is needed to prove that no subject deserves to gain, or retain, a place in an already overcrowded course of study unless it has some distinctive contribution to make to human welfare. Music, for example, contributes in an absolutely unique way to man's love of melody; the art of the painter or the sculptor ministers to man's love of beauty in a manner unequalled; poetry conveys a unique "atmosphere of infinite suggestion," an "all-embracing perfection," which cannot be expressed in words. If any of these arts were lost, something enriching human life in a surpassing degree, something irreplaceable, would have vanished. In much the same way, every legitimate branch of human knowledge, every true art, has its distinctive qual-



ities, a message which it alone can give. If it lacks such qualities, if it has no such message, it has no educative or cultural value.

What then is the message of history? What are its intrinsic qualities? In this busy age, in which almost every thing finds its utility challenged, does history deserve a place in the curriculum? The need for an occasional examination into this matter impresses itself upon one constantly—in educational gatherings, in books on the teaching of history, in articles in educational magazines. When asked for sound, tangible, convincing reasons for the teaching of history, the answers of many teachers unconsciously echo the refrain of the old song, "I don't know where I'm going, but I'm on my way." If this condition exists—and a little investigation will convince the most skeptical—the importance of emphasizing the true educational function of history is axiomatic.

It is true, to be sure, that most teachers are equipped with certain stock answers to the question, "Why teach history?" To inculcate patriotism, to teach morals, to aid in the appreciation of literature, to strengthen the memory, are among such replies. Let us examine their merit.

History is so rich a subject that without question it does contain material which may serve to stimulate patriotism, inspire to right-living, and aid in the interpretation of literature. Whether a desirable kind of patriotism will result when patriotism is the supreme motive in teaching the subject, however, is open to question. To picture Governor Andros as a tyrant whose sole purpose was to crush the liberties of the colonists; to present England as a cruel mistress whose wicked oppression was the only cause of the American Revolution; to explain the Monroe Doctrine as the mere outgrowth of altruistic humanitarianism; to justify the Mexican War on the ground that Mexico fired the first shot—to teach these or a host of other like matters savors of ignorance, if not of hypocrisy. The screaming of the eagle under such circumstances is not sweet music to the ear of the true patriot.

Likewise, to inculcate morals by the immorality which so often occurs when ethics becomes the chief guide of the history teacher is of doubtful value. He who, in order to instill a love of truth, pictures Washington as a demigod incapable of telling a lie is either credulous or he forgets that this disability from which Washington is said to have suffered when a child was one which, as Ford says, he "partially outgrew in his more mature years" or he believes that so good, an end justifies the means. Whether or not a love of truth so gained be worth the falsehood it costs, experts in ethics may discuss; certainly no one giving such instruction should deceive himself into thinking that he is thereby teaching history.

No one will deny that history is of value when serving as the handmaid of literature. But if the basic conception in such a justification of history is that *Clio* will merely clarify the numerous allusions

to historical places, persons, and episodes which one finds in literature, will not an historical lexicon serve fully as well, perhaps better, and in the bargain prove a great time-saver?

Whether history can be used to strengthen the memory or otherwise discipline the mind, let the friends and foes of formal discipline determine. Certainly a subject which can defend its existence in the course of study on no better grounds is hard put and should surrender its place to another which can.

To sum up. To justify the teaching of history on the ground that it is valuable in stimulating patriotism or inculcating ethics is pernicious. When either practice is followed, the temptation to wrest the truth so as to point the moral is well-nigh irresistible. Such use of history in the past led Walpole to say, "History is a pack of lies," and Napoleon to ask, "What is history but a fable agreed upon?" Let us portray historical characters truly,—Cromwell, wart and all; Dr. Johnson, puffing, wheezing, blustering, domineering, thundering; Washington, simple, dignified, human, with passionate temper sometimes leaping bounds, not as an imposing idol without fault or blemish.<sup>2</sup> Furthermore, to conceive of history as the mere handmaid of literature—or, to change the figure, as the tail to the literary kite—is to miss the true significance of both subjects. By similar reasoning one could justify history as the interpreter of art, of architecture, of music, whereas the truth is that literature, art, music, are all reflections of the times when they were produced,—each helpful in illuminating history, history essential in illuminating each; and each, including history, having its own peculiar message for mankind.

But let there be no misunderstanding. History, if rightly used, will indeed furnish a mine of material for developing real patriotism, promoting genuine ethical training, and aiding in the true interpretation of literature, music, art, geography, what-not. But these results, important as they are, should be the by-products of history, not its chief end.

That such is not the case and that existing conditions have not been painted too dark appears strikingly from a questionnaire recently sent to various schools throughout the country. Among its queries was the following: "General aims in teaching of history—mark in order of importance, 1, 2, 3, etc.; mental training;<sup>3</sup> good citizenship; patriotism; literary appreciation; morality; general culture."

Apparently the framer of the query held the opinion that the proposed aims include all the possibilities in the case. But as a matter of fact it is difficult to see how any of these aims is related to or can be realized from the study of history more than from the study of a number of other subjects. Moreover, if the suggested aims are proper ones, history has no function in education since it has no individuality, or since its individuality in such use is not employed; for under such usage history, being everything or anything, becomes nothing, all the traits peculiar to it having vanished.

But, on the other hand, if history has individuality, if it is different from literature or geography or ethics, its value as an educational instrument must of necessity lie in that which makes it different from other subjects, not in traits it shares in common with other subjects. Its value as history, in short, must lie in its *historicity*.

This point deserves emphasis for it is the crux of the whole matter. If history be useful only as it teaches patriotism, illuminates literature, or trains the memory, it is worthless; for other subjects are as well adapted and in some cases much better adapted to accomplish these aims. Besides, *so* to teach history is not to teach *history* at all.

Now the study of history involves not only facts, but processes as well.<sup>4</sup> In the elementary and secondary schools, and even in colleges and universities, the process side of history has at times been almost wholly neglected; emphasis has been laid almost exclusively on the information side. No true history teacher would underestimate the importance of historical information—we need more of it—but it is vital to remember that he who learns only facts is not learning history, for it is impossible to understand what history really is unless one knows how it is built up. To understand its nature and appreciate its message one must know how the historian works, the kinds of material he uses, the methods he employs, the difficulties he encounters, and the purpose he has in view. It is commonplace to say we learn by doing, but unfortunately wide application has not been made of this homely truth in the teaching of history. The fact remains, none the less, that the best way to acquaint pupils with the nature and message of history empirically is by giving them occasionally actual problems in historical investigation in which some collection, classification, and criticism of historical materials are necessary. Not that we can or should make trained historians of boys and girls any more than that, by a high-school course in chemistry, we can make of them trained chemists. But by selecting problems adapted to the interest and ability of pupils we can accomplish the first legitimate aim in the teaching of history, the inculcation of historical-mindedness.

Even among graduate students, hazy notions frequently exist concerning the meaning of historical-mindedness. Historical-mindedness is the mental attitude of the historian in his search for truth. It is the attitude which recognizes things as becoming, which sees in past and present continuity, growth, evolution. It is the attitude of mind required for weighing historical evidence and determining its value; which insists on knowing whether a document or relic be genuine; which inquires as to who said such-and-such, what opportunities he had for knowing, what ability he had for relating, what motives caused him to record the tale. In short, historical-mindedness is a frame of mind characterized by inquisitiveness, open-mindedness, eagerness to know the truth, no matter what it be. The historian differs primarily

from the scientist, as the terms are popularly used, in that his search for truth lies in the realm of social affairs while the scientist's lies in the field of natural phenomena.

The question now properly arises, Is historical-mindedness worth while for boys and girls? Is it of practical value?<sup>5</sup> To this question, one may reply by a query suggested by Professor Flinn: Why the laboratory in the teaching of science? Since it is doubtful whether as many as ten per cent of the students who take science plan to pursue it as a life's work, the vocational motive may be dismissed. So far as mere scientific knowledge is concerned, few will deny that the student could acquire in less time and a lower expense as much if not more information by the old-fashioned textbook method than by the long, painstaking, sometimes tedious, laboratory method. Why then the laboratory? The answer lies on the surface. The main goal in view is not the informational side of the subject, but the process side for science like history includes processes as well as facts. The chief justification of the laboratory method lies in its mental residuum, scientific-mindedness, not in the acquisition of a certain number of scientific facts. Though the facts may be forgotten, scientific-mindedness will remain.<sup>6</sup>

The reasons which make scientific-mindedness worth while apply with double force to historical-mindedness. One cannot listen with discrimination to a political address, or read a timely article in a magazine with penetration, or scan the daily paper with intelligence, without using historical processes. So necessary are such processes that everyone more or less unconsciously and successfully employs them every day and many times a day in forming decisions on a host of questions demanding his judgment and action.<sup>7</sup>

"I saw it in the book," is however, too often the final, *ipse-dixit* argument of the uncritical student. So deeply engrained does reliance upon print become that, as Professor Johnson has pointed out, it is occasionally impossible to eradicate it even from graduate students in seminar courses in history. The most cursory investigation will reveal how difficult it is for students who have had no training in historical method to discriminate between the printed page and the truth behind it, to distinguish clearly between conjecture and inference, pure speculation and strong probability, possibility and certainty, opinion and fact. Would it not be worth while, then, if instead of letting boys and girls leave school to grope their way through social and political problems vital to themselves and to society, some training were given in the processes by which truth can be separated from error. When the inculcation of historical-mindedness is a conscious aim of the teacher, when emphasis is put upon the process side of history as well as upon facts, such training will be given.

Now, in genuine historical investigation, one *must* examine both sides of a question with charity and appreciation before coming to a conclusion. Such an examination will usually show that, in controversial

matters, there is truth and merit on both sides. Moreover, the conclusion when reached must always be open to revision if new evidence is found. If such training does not create tolerance, one must despair as to how to develop it.

In addition to the possibilities of the process side of history for developing broad-mindedness, what a wealth of material suitable for this purpose is included in historical literature. The boy or girl who has entered into the feelings and viewpoints of both Catholic and Protestant in the stirring days of the Reformation; or who has been taught to understand sympathetically the attitude of loyalist as well as patriot in the days of the Revolution; or who has been led to appreciate the position of slave owner, anti-slavery man, and abolitionist in ante-bellum days,—the girl or boy, in short, who has seen in the pages of history that people wiser than he have many times been mistaken, that good men have honestly differed in days gone by without rascality on the part of either, that much can truthfully be said on both sides of great questions, should be easier to live with and better able to face present-day problems with modesty and self-reliance and with tolerance and respect for those whose views he is unable to accept than he who has never had such training.

"History," as Trevelyan says, "does most to cure a man of political prejudice, when it enables him, by reading about men or movements in the past, to understand points of view which he never saw before, and to respect ideals which he had formerly despised."

When a man of the world reads history, he is called on to form a judgment on a social or political problem, without previous bias, and with some knowledge of the final protracted result of what was done. The exercise of his mind under such unwonted conditions, sends him back to the still unsettled problems of modern politics and society, with larger views, clearer head, and better temper. The study of past controversies, of which the final outcome is known, destroys the spirit of prejudice. It brings home to the mind the evils that are likely to spring from violent policy, based on want of understanding of opponents.<sup>8</sup>

True historical-mindedness, as pointed out above, also includes a realization of the continuity of events, of development, of the fact that the present is intelligible only when seen by the light of the past. Out of this truth comes the fact that all problems undergoing thorough investigation today are being studied more and more from the genetic standpoint, the standpoint of how things came to be what they are,—whether problems of education, religion, philosophy, industry, politics, or society.

The dependence of the present on the past appears in all things, from the development of slang to the significance of the Great War. The meaning attached to the expression "social lion" took its origin from the eagerness with which polite society flocked to the Tower of London to see the first lions ever brought to England; "blue stockings," likewise, came from an incident in the eighteenth century during Queen

Caroline's effort to elevate the status of women by giving parties at which cards were tabooed and to which only the elite were invited,—the appearance of a gentleman at such a gathering in gray-blue worsted stockings instead of in the traditional black silk required for evening dress, led the wits of the day to dub this select set "the blue stockings." Did space permit, the same truth could be illustrated with such expressions and words as "up Salt Creek," "printer's devil," "sandwich," "tango," "jingoist," "boycott," "dreadnaught," "Uncle Sam." Terms which have no particular meaning when literally interpreted become full of significance when seen in the light of their origin, evolution, and usage. The meaning of the characters +, ?, \$, &, %, ÷; the letters of the alphabet; the names of the days of the week and the months of the year; the dating of our correspondence; the clothing we wear (for example, the buttons on the sleeves or on the back of a man's coat); the customs we follow; the religion we believe; the ideals we cherish; the very words we speak: all have their roots far back in the past. "The Doric temple preserves the semblance of the wooden cabin in which the Dorian dwelt. The Chinese pagoda is plainly a Tartar tent. The Indian and Egyptian temples still betray the mounds and subterranean houses of their forefathers."<sup>9</sup> The past explains the presence of French names in Wisconsin, the existence of Roman law in Louisiana, the prevalence of Spanish names in California and Texas. History alone enables us to understand why France is a centralized republic, Great Britain a democratic monarchy, Russia until yesterday a semi-orientalized autocracy.

To give a simple illustration of the absolute dependence of the present on the past. About the middle of July, 1914, a schooner left Hongkong bound for Liverpool by way of Cape Horn. As it happened it bespoke no vessel and touched at no port on the entire voyage. Accordingly, when it reached England, about Christmas time, master and crew were in complete ignorance of the Great War. One can imagine their bewilderment when they picked up the first newspapers they had seen in over five months and read in great, black headlines of the gigantic struggle then going on. Only by learning the events of the previous months, of course, could they secure even an inkling of what the war was about; only by knowing something of the last eight hundred years of European history could they have comprehended all the issues involved. And so it is with all of life: only as we know how things came to be can we comprehend their significance and deal with them intelligently. Man himself, as Emerson says, is explicable by nothing less than his past.

What memory is to the individual, history is to the race. "The daily thoughts and actions of each of us rest upon his knowledge of his own history. Any man would be in a sorry state if he should forget his own past every night, and be compelled to start out afresh every morning, discovering anew his relatives and friends and puzzling out again once familiar streets. It is, in short, his knowledge of his own past

that makes a person's surroundings intelligible to him, and renders the doings of the day something more than groupings in an ever strange and unaccountable world. We must perforce build our today upon the memory of yesterday, and just as our own private history enables us to interpret what would otherwise have no meaning for us, so the history of nations serves to show us why they are what they are, and why they do as they do. For institutions are, after all, only the habits of nations, and can be understood only by discovering their origin, and following their gradual development.<sup>10</sup> A guiding motive in teaching history then should be the interpretation of the present.

Two words of caution, however, are necessary. In the first place, the teacher should be on guard constantly not to read the present *into* the past: not to picture New England as a manufacturing center in colonial days because it is such now; not to present the cultivation of cotton as the economic cause of slavery in the eighteenth century though it became such during the early nineteenth; not to state that the Civil War was fought in order to destroy slavery though slavery was destroyed during that conflict. In the second place, the teacher should avoid hasty conclusions that an apparent similarity between past and present proves continuity or relation. In many instances a study of the times in which the event occurred or in which the institution existed will show decisively that the apparent similarity is superficial not real; that is, to understand an event in medieval times or an institution of the middle ages one must understand the medieval man.<sup>11</sup>

But on the other hand, let us teach the period of discovery as a time which had for its prime motive a force which still lives—the desire for gain through oriental commerce—a motive which helps to explain our trans-continental railway lines, the Panama Canal, and President Harding's international conference concerning the Pacific and the affairs of the Far East. Again, let us present the American Revolution as the period which largely determined the form of our Federal Union, that apparently new venture in political science—a federal empire with all its peculiarities and apparent contradictions—a venture which, however, was but the outgrowth of experiences in colonial days, in the Revolutionary War, and of the perplexities of the Critical Period.

In portraying the fascinating story of the westward movement, likewise, we should not fail to point out by concrete instances why men went West, the problems they faced on the frontier and how they solved them, the traits of character which were there developed, and the resulting evolution of what Professor Turner considers the distinctive traits of the American people; nor should we fail to emphasize—again by concrete illustrations—the relation between the disappearance of the frontier and the social and economic discontent so marked in the United States during the last three decades.

Let us then teach history by throwing its flashlight of explanation constantly on the institutions,

conditions, and problems of this present time. Not that history will give the *answer* to our problems, for to quote Trevelyan, "No one can, by a knowledge of history, however profound, invent the steam-engine, or light a town, or cure cancer, or make wheat grow near the Arctic Circle. . . . An historical event cannot be isolated from its circumstances, any more than the onion from its skins, because an event is itself nothing but a set of circumstances, none of which will ever recur."<sup>12</sup>

But though history will not *solve* the problems of modern life, it will when properly interpreted give us an *understanding* of them. And it will scarcely be denied that an *understanding* of any problem is a prerequisite to its successful solution. The extent of our comprehension, in fact, is likely to be the measure of the efficiency of our solution. For "could we suddenly be endowed with a Godlike and exhaustive knowledge of the whole history of mankind, far more complete than the combined knowledge of all the histories ever written, we should gain forthwith a Godlike appreciation of the world in which we live, and a Godlike insight into the evils which mankind now suffers, as well as into the most promising methods for alleviating them, *not because the past would furnish precedents of conducts, but because our conduct would be based upon a perfect comprehension of existing conditions founded upon a perfect knowledge of the past.*"<sup>13</sup>

A final aim in the teaching of history should be pleasure for a duty and an opportunity too often neglected by the public schools is the cultivation of lasting intellectual tastes. Literature, geography, history, and science afford rich material for this purpose. But most boys and girls leave school with no keen interest, no love for any subject to which, after school days are over, they return again and again with an abiding joy. Such an interest would contribute much to the solution of certain social problems. Let us then make history a delight! The boy or girl who has been truly awakened to its romance, its living men and women and children, their adventures and ambitions and loves and problems, will need little urging to continue the story.

If we teachers could only make it all real, if we could but picture vividly the wonderful panorama of cave man and savage, pyramid-builder and fire-worshiper, fierce Assyrian and mailed crusader, brown-clad pilgrim and sturdy peasant,—could we but present the vision of this march of man through the centuries, what a fascination it would have! Or could we but tell, with fire and enthusiasm (as such tales ought always to be told) the story of the defense of Thermopylae's gate by Leonidas and his Spartans, of the rescue of the fair realm of France by Joan of Arc, of the blunt deeds of lion-like Martin Luther, of the marvelous voyage of Magellan, of the stand on Lutzen's field of Gustavus Adolphus and his heroic Swedes, of the adventures of doughty Captain John Smith, intrepid Daniel Boone, brave-hearted Elizabeth Zane, persevering Cyrus Field, indomitable Ulysses S. Grant,—could we but tell with power such stories

as these, ears would never weary of listening, and history would indeed become a delight.

With such teaching, who could speak of the history taught in the schools as "frankly a bore, made up of dates that refuse to stay memorized, and names triple-plated against imagination and as hard to connect with real life as it is to believe that mummies in a museum ever breathed and walked."<sup>14</sup>

History a delight! In all the pages of fiction, the reader who loves romance will find nothing which surpasses in pathos the love story of Abelard and Heloise; he who loves adventure will find nothing which surpasses the thrilling exploits of Xenophon and the Ten Thousand, of Alexander and his immortal Greeks; he who loves tales of the high seas will search in vain to find anything which can surpass the voyaging of Drake the buccaneer or of Captain Cook the navigator; he who loves travel will find nothing to equal the wanderings of Marco Polo the Venetian, of Francis Xavier the Spaniard, of David Livingstone the Scotchman. Where can the lover of the drama find a tragedy which compares for one moment with the career of Napoleon or the ascent to greatness of Abraham Lincoln! Truth is indeed stranger than fiction, and the pages of history contain stories more wonderful than Grimm's Fairy Tales, more astonishing than the Arabian Nights, more fascinating than the adventures of Robinson Crusoe.

It goes without saying, of course, that no teacher can make history a delight, unless he finds it so himself. Enthusiasm begets enthusiasm. But under the guidance of an enthusiastic, appreciative teacher, one who believes in History for History's sake, history as some one has remarked can never become like that sawdust record of England, described in Alice-in-Wonderland, which was used to dry the wet company

about the pool of tears, because, as the Dodo said, "It was the driest thing she knew." History can never be a dull catalog of mere dates, names, and events to him who has ever been thrilled by the realization that through its pages he may, in a sense, become

"The owner of the Sphere,  
Of the seven stars and the solar year,  
Of Cæsar's hand, and Plato's brain,  
Of Lord Christ's heart, and Shakespeare's strain."

<sup>1</sup> Trevelyan, *Chio a Muss.* 5.

<sup>2</sup> See suggestive article, "A Boswell Memorial in London," *Outlook* (March 14, 1915), p. 670.

<sup>3</sup> By "mental training," it is assumed the framer of the query meant what psychologists call "formal discipline," namely, the theory that power acquired in one field can be transferred to another. "Good citizenship," the next term listed above, includes the aim of all education; hence, it can hardly be considered distinctive for history.

<sup>4</sup> Johnson, *Teaching of History*, p. 427. The points mentioned above are stressed frequently in this excellent manual on the teaching of history.

<sup>5</sup> Can historical-mindedness be developed successfully in elementary and secondary schools? This, also, is a pertinent question, but it does not fall within the scope of this paper. In passing it may be said that it *has been done*; and the best proof of the pudding is the eating.

<sup>6</sup> Fling: *Parallel Source Problems in the French Revolution*, ix.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>8</sup> *Op. cit.*, pp. 20-21.

<sup>9</sup> Emerson, *Essay of History*.

<sup>10</sup> Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, I., 2.

<sup>11</sup> See Johnson, *op. cit.*, 81.

<sup>12</sup> *Op. cit.*, 7.

<sup>13</sup> Robinson, *The New History*, 20-21; the italics are Robinson's.

<sup>14</sup> Nicolay, "Our Nation in the Building," quoted in the *Nation*, vol. 104, p. 195 (Feb. 15, 1917).

## A Survey of Methods Courses in History

BY BESSIE L. PIERCE, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.

Within the past decade a realization of the necessity of professional training for high school history teachers has caused departments of history in many of our colleges and universities to introduce courses of this character. A few years ago courses in the teaching of history were exceptions; now they have become the rule. The tendency has been for such courses to assume a utilitarian character. With less emphasis than formerly on content matter, there is now to be found a teacher training course which includes practical as well as theoretical problems for the future teacher

To ascertain the status of courses in the teaching of history, a questionnaire was sent in the spring of 1920 to twenty-six of the larger universities and colleges of the country, answers being received from all. With the exception of Yale, Princeton, the

University of Pittsburgh, College of the City of New York, Harvard, and Brown, all gave teacher training courses in history. This would seem to indicate that most colleges which in any way attempt to train teachers for the secondary schools are offering special courses in the teaching of history.<sup>1</sup>

### PREPARATION OF THE INSTRUCTOR

In general, the course in methods is given by a person having secondary school experience, which, in itself, indicates an attempt to make the course practical by having it presented by one thoroughly familiar with the field. An instructor with experience only in college teaching can scarcely give to the student the same insight into the secondary school problem which can be given by one whose information has been acquired through actual contact with that problem. This would lead to the conclusion that all aspects

of the course should be under the full direction of one person, and that practice teaching and observation work, when forming a part of the methods course, should be under the supervision of the teacher in charge of methods, or, in other words, the teacher in charge of the history work in the training school should be no other than the methods instructor.

The scholastic training of the instructor in the teaching of history is substantially as good as that of those in purely academic work, eleven instructors holding the degree of doctor of philosophy and four the master's degree.<sup>2</sup> Four indicated either advanced study,<sup>3</sup> training in methods,<sup>4</sup> or graduation from a school where methods work is given.<sup>5</sup>

Of those holding the doctoral degree five have had experience in teaching in the secondary school; one has taught in a normal school, and two signify no experience in either; all of those holding the master's degree have secondary school experience. The head of the department of history presents the methods course in three institutions.<sup>6</sup>

#### PERIOD OF INSTRUCTION, PREREQUISITES AND CREDIT

The general tendency permits but one semester or less to the professional history course, ranging from twelve weeks with three and four class meetings a week to eighteen weeks, with perhaps two class sessions.<sup>7</sup> Washington gives twenty-four weeks to the course, two hours each week. Only three schools, Grinnell College, Ohio State University and the University of Iowa, devote a full school year to the work.<sup>8</sup>

There is considerable variation in the practice of prerequisites. This may be due to a difference in the use of the terms "hours," "units," or "credits." Substantially all courses are opened to major students only, in most instances after the junior year. One college permits sophomore registrants.<sup>9</sup> Knowledge of the fundamental content courses is necessary in general for the student to enter the methods class, thereby showing that the professional course is supposed to develop the "how" and not the "what" of history teaching.

Fourteen schools accept the methods course as credit toward the major,<sup>10</sup> two stipulating that the amount not exceed two semester hours,<sup>11</sup> and one giving credit only for a "teaching major."<sup>12</sup> At Columbia and Kansas credit is gained in the School of Education, and at Iowa, where the course continues for thirty-six weeks, the College of Education gives two hours' credit and the Department of History grants two. Sixteen replies to the questionnaire indicated that credit toward the state certificate was granted; on the other hand, California receives such recognition not through the University, but through the State Board of Education; and Ohio State (Department of European History) doubts whether credit is given.

#### ENROLLMENT IN COURSES

When one considers the brief time in which these courses have been given, and that in most instances they are not required for recommendation for teach-

ing positions, he is struck by the consistently good enrollment. If one were to compare this enrollment with that of most advanced courses he would find no displeasing contrast. The number ranges from ten to two hundred, the latter number being the total for three quarters at Chicago University.<sup>13</sup>

Columbia comes next to Chicago with an enrollment of one hundred and seventy; Grinnell, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Ohio State, and Washington have less than twenty, and the others report from twenty to forty. Were the registration brought down to date, it is quite certain that the experience of the course at Iowa in increasing one hundred per cent in the past year would be duplicated by others.

Teachers' training courses are required by the department for recommendation for a teaching position in seven cases.<sup>14</sup> One indicates that it is required by the department giving it, but that the University may not require it.<sup>15</sup> Two institutions "practically" insist upon candidates for history positions registering for the work,<sup>16</sup> and two demand it for those inexperienced.<sup>17</sup> Chicago, Cornell, Northwestern, and Southern California answer in the negative.

#### CONTENT OF THE COURSE

One of the most interesting phases of the tabulated results is in the content of the courses. From the frequency of the emphasis placed upon pure methods, as distinguished from the purely academic, it would seem that the subject matter of history is given in the regular college course. This leaves to the methods instructor the privilege of dealing with those problems which would normally fall in such work. These would include practice teaching, research in problems of teaching, textbook analysis, library equipment, aids in teaching, note books, current events and kindred topics, the making of courses of study, and aims in the teaching of history.

In a study of the content of special methods courses, Dr. Carl G. F. Franzén points out that there are seven phases of the work in the teaching courses which seem common to most courses: aims and reasons for teaching the subject in high school, the study and examination of books, equipment, the study of the course of study, the teacher, the pupil, and methods.<sup>18</sup>

Aims and values, Dr. Franzén found, would include such topics as "aims of and reasons for teaching the subject in the high school, values assigned to the acquisition of its subject matter, relation to other subjects in the curriculum, place in the history of education, and a general treatment of educational values." The study and examination of books would lead to a criticism and selection of high school textbooks, reference books, bibliography, publishers, and the use of the library. Equipment would include accessory aids for the teacher. The course of study would involve the production of outlines, detailed lesson plans and general organization. In the methods, attention would be paid to the technique of teaching the particular subject, observation of teaching, and readiness and reports on special problems.

In the nineteen courses in the teaching of history which Dr. Franzén examined, he found that approxi-

mately one-half devoted time to the aims and values of history in the secondary school curriculum, in which might be included an historical sketch of history instruction; approximately the same number developed the course of study and content material; fifteen devoted time to special methods in which were included such recitation devices as the question and answer, socialized recitation, individual instruction, quiz and textbook, and problem approach. Thirteen courses dealt with the examination of textbooks and the use and development of the library.

The results of the questionnaire which were secured by the writer of this article are not far afield from those of Dr. Franzén. Fifteen courses are devoted to pure methods, one is "largely" methods, another indicates that it is "partly," and a third combines pure theory and methods.<sup>19</sup>

Practice teaching does not receive the attention which it should receive in the teaching courses. Although there may be no tangible comparison regarding the success of those teachers who have received actual training in teaching and what probable success they might have attained had no such training been given them, nevertheless it is a safe assumption that the training so received is of considerable benefit. Teachers who have been given the opportunity of working in their college courses under expert critics openly declare the value of such experience. Certainly it is of no mean advantage to the student to put into execution the theory of teaching which he has learned in the lecture from the methods teacher. Only six of the universities replying to the questionnaire give practice teaching in high school classes as a part of the teaching of history course.<sup>20</sup> Columbia requires it if the student has no teaching experience. Separate courses in practice teaching are given at Kansas and at Indiana; and Nebraska, Ohio State, and Minnesota require practice teaching in addition to the regular teachers' course. No requirement of this nature is made at Cornell, Grinnell College, Illinois, Southern California, and Syracuse. The great weakness in the practice teaching as now carried out lies in the division of authority. Only four institutions have the teaching of history instructor supervise the actual teaching of the student.<sup>21</sup> One institution reports that there is slight co-operation between the supervisor of practice teaching and the instructor of the teachers' course and one is unable to determine the degree of the application of classroom instruction to the training work.

The extent to which practice teaching is required for credit in those courses in which it forms a part varies from one hour daily for a semester to two high school lessons. Sometimes the requirement is fitted to the individual student as at Columbia and at Iowa. At the latter place a minimum of fifteen hours of consecutive teaching is required each semester.

No doubt the failure of our educational institutions to provide places where practice teaching may be carried on accounts for the fact that practice teaching does not compose a part of the work at some

institutions. All of those courses which make it a prerequisite for credit conduct it in a training school. Some instructors use the city schools for such a purpose,<sup>22</sup> whereas others employ the methods class itself.<sup>23</sup>

Closely allied with practice teaching is observation work, by which the student is made acquainted with new and expert methods of recitation. California carries on such work not in a training school, but in four other schools; Columbia has no formal plan, but in one course requires observation collectively and individually for six weeks.<sup>24</sup> In those schools where practice teaching is done it is customary to require a minimum amount of observation before practice teaching.

Most of the teaching of history courses deal with the problems of the senior high school only. Eleven schools give separate courses for the junior high and elementary school work. Substantially all reporting devote time in the course to textbook analysis, library equipment, teachers' aids, and to such topics as note books and current events. Sixteen develop detailed courses of study; and twelve carry on research in problems of teaching.

The most unsatisfactory response of the questionnaire had to do with the amount of reference work required in the course, replies varying from "no fixed amount" to "about one thousand pages." This diversity may be caused by the lack of material upon recent phases of history teaching which might be accessible to students and to the greater emphasis placed upon the practical application of work rather than upon the reading of theory.

#### CONCLUSION

In general, the results of the questionnaire show a fairly uniform method of approach in the preparation of teachers of history. Since the majority of instructors in the teaching courses place emphasis upon the making of courses of study, textbook analysis, teacher equipment, the library, the use of the note book, current events, and other topics which are peculiar to history it would seem that the courses tend to be of practical aid, leaving to a general methods course in Education the development of a knowledge of theory. It is to be regretted that more time than one semester is not given in most departments for the training of history teachers, and it may not be a false prophecy to predict that the time is not far distant when schools of education and departments of history will recognize the real value of special methods courses by devoting more adequate time to their presentation.

<sup>1</sup> The questionnaire was sent to Brown University, University of California, University of Chicago, Columbia, Cornell University, Grinnell College, Harvard, University of Illinois, University of Indiana, State University of Iowa, University of Kansas, University of Minnesota, University of Nebraska, College of the City of New York, New York University, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, University of Pittsburgh, Princeton University, University of Southern California, Smith College, Leland Stanford University, University of Washington, Syracuse University, University of Wisconsin, and Yale.



<sup>5</sup> Ph. D. at California, Chicago, Columbia, Grinnell College, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, Northwestern, Ohio State, Syracuse; M. A. at Iowa, Nebraska, and Washington.

<sup>6</sup> Wisconsin.

<sup>7</sup> Southern California.

<sup>8</sup> Indiana.

<sup>9</sup> Ohio State, Syracuse and Northwestern.

<sup>10</sup> Chicago, California, Columbia, Minnesota, Nebraska, Syracuse and Stanford have less than eighteen weeks.

<sup>11</sup> Here the work is given two hours each week.

<sup>12</sup> Grinnell College.

<sup>13</sup> Chicago, Cornell, Grinnell College, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, Northwestern, Ohio State, Southern California, Stanford, Syracuse, Washington.

<sup>14</sup> Iowa, Northwestern.

<sup>15</sup> Wisconsin.

<sup>16</sup> Cornell University and Leland Stanford reported ten as their enrollment.

<sup>17</sup> Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Ohio State, Syracuse, Washington, and Wisconsin.

<sup>18</sup> Columbia.

<sup>19</sup> Minnesota and Nebraska.

<sup>20</sup> Leland Stanford, California.

<sup>21</sup> Franzén, Carl G. F. The Content of Special Method Courses. State University of Iowa doctoral dissertations, 1920.

<sup>22</sup> California, Northwestern, and Wisconsin.

<sup>23</sup> California, Chicago, Iowa, Stanford, Washington, Wisconsin.

<sup>24</sup> Columbia, Indiana, Iowa, Stanford.

<sup>25</sup> Indiana, Ohio State, Washington.

<sup>26</sup> Chicago, Columbia, Nebraska, Ohio State, Stanford, Washington. Some instructors use both city schools and training schools as: Columbia, Minnesota.

<sup>27</sup> Ohio State through the School of Education conducts practice teaching in city schools.

## Course in Sociology Offered in the Bucyrus High School

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### INTRODUCTION. INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF COURSES IN SOCIAL SCIENCE OFFERED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RECENT YEARS

During the past fifteen years a veritable renaissance has taken place in the number of courses in social science offered in our high schools. This period has witnessed a great improvement in the technique of teaching social science subjects and also an increase in the number of courses given. Not many years ago, the only courses in social science in our high schools were a one-year course in General History and Civics—one semester of each. Some schools there were, however, that gave more courses in this field, but in most secondary schools the number was limited to two or three courses. Today, a different situation is to be noted. American History and Civics have been retained and rightly so, but the course in General History has given way to two distinct courses, one in Ancient History and one in Modern History, and, in some schools, English History is taught. This is a notable and commendable improvement, but the greatest and most recent advance has come in the introduction of courses in Commerce and Trade, Economics and Sociology, or, as some prefer to call it, Social Problems. In most high schools where such courses are given, they are elective, but it is becoming apparent to all who have studied the matter that this work should be required of every student for graduation. The reason for this is not far to seek. Readily admitting that it is a good thing for the student to know something of the dramas of Shakespeare, the fundamental theorems in geometry and why the English colonists came to America, it is vastly more important, in the writer's judgment, that high school boys and girls, most of whom will never go to college, should know something about the economic world in which they live and the social mechanism of which they are a part. The desirability of a required high school course in Sociology is no longer academic; it is necessary in every first-class high school curriculum.

### THE PLACE OF SOCIOLOGY IN A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE

If every high school should offer a required course in Sociology, this problem naturally arises: When should it be given? Clearly, it would be inadvisable to offer it in the Freshman or Sophomore years. In these years, the student does not have the background or the mental development necessary to pursue such a study with profit. This leaves the Junior or Senior years as the most feasible time in which to study our social organization. In Bucyrus, our course in Sociology, which is required of all students, is given the second semester of the Junior year. Our experience has been that students at this period of their high school work can pursue such a study with profit. However, the best opinion seems to be that the last semester of the Senior year is the most desirable time for it to be taken. By that time, the student has a better background than at any time in his high school career to pursue the work profitably. In Bucyrus, we are thinking very seriously of making this change.

### THE PURPOSE OF THIS PAPER

The object of this paper is to set forth the nature of the course in Sociology that is now offered in the Bucyrus High School. It is hoped that it may prove suggestive to those, who, like the writer, are endeavoring to work out a satisfactory course in this field for high school pupils. Furthermore, the writer trusts that it will be freely criticized by his co-laborers, and, that as a result of these criticisms, he will be enabled to improve the course in Sociology which he is now engaged in teaching.

### EQUIPMENT USED IN THE COURSE

In giving any course, the equipment to be used is a matter of major importance. Our first problem was whether a text should be used in the work. An examination of the various high school texts on Social Problems revealed the inadequacy of these books for our purpose. They covered a very limited field and were particularly deficient on the constructive side of social life, thus lacking the most essential thing that a high school text in sociology should have. The texts

in sociology intended for college use laid too much stress upon sociological theory and other matters not vital to a high school course. It was therefore decided not to use a text, but instead to use a series of outlines.

The decision not to use a text made it necessary to procure an adequate reference library. Toward obtaining this, the Board of Education contributed about \$125.00 and the members of the class in lieu of purchasing a textbook, gave \$1.25 apiece, to a fund which was to be used in securing reference books. This fund amounted to approximately \$150.00, making a total of \$275.00. The students of their own volition voted to donate the books, purchased with the \$150.00 they contributed, to the departmental library at the conclusion of the course. Out of this fund, we were able to purchase such standard works in Sociology as Blackmar and Gillin's "Outlines of Sociology," Dealey's "Sociology," Hayes's "An Introduction to the Study of Sociology," and others. Copies, sufficient for class use, of such books as Ellwood's "Sociology and Modern Social Problems," Towne's "Social Problems," Binder's "Major Social Problems," etc., were also secured. An adequate number of such books on special and limited fields as Conklin's "Heredity and Environment," Chapin's "Social Evolution," Ellwood's "An Introduction to Social Psychology," Fairchild's "Immigration," King's "The Social Aspects of Education," and others were procured. The library we obtained with the money at our disposal, while not exhaustive, was adequate for our purpose. The class also had access to the city library where volumes in the field of Sociology nicely supplemented our own.

In addition to the material noted above, considerable use was made of magazine literature in the high school and city libraries. We found "The Survey" and "The American Journal of Sociology" especially valuable, although considerable worth while data was found in other periodicals.

Furthermore, every student was required to provide himself or herself with a loose-leaf note book.

### THE NATURE OF THE COURSE.

Having examined the equipment used, it is now desirable to note the nature of the ground covered in the course. There are about 90 school days in a semester and the course was mapped out to include 80 lessons, thus allowing 10 days for reviews, tests, etc. The first two lessons were devoted to a consideration of "The Nature of Society." The next twelve lessons were devoted to a careful study of "The Contributions of Biology and Psychology to Sociology." The lessons on this topic were put into the course with some fear and trepidation. Some of my co-workers and others, who were consulted, felt that high school Juniors would have great difficulty in dealing intelligently with this subject. However, experience has justified the belief that the topic could be well handled by high school boys and girls. By discussing the contributions of biology and psychology concretely and in simple terms, the pupils were

able to handle the work creditably and it laid the foundation for a more intelligent study of our social order. This was followed by twenty lessons on "The Evolution of Social Institutions." In this work, we emphasized the origin and development of the family, the nucleus of our social structure. The next twenty-two lessons dealt with pathological conditions that exist in society today and included a study of divorce, crime, poverty, pauperism, etc. The last lessons in the course—twenty-four in number—concerned themselves with social prophylactics, or the lines of action society must pursue intelligently if the social order is to be improved. Attention was given to Eugenics, Individual and Community Health, The Enlarged Activities of the State, The New Social Viewpoint, The Reorganization of Industry, The Recasting of our Educational Systems, Reforms in the Church, Individual and Social Morality, etc. This work proved the most interesting and instructive to the class, but was also the most difficult to handle satisfactorily, because the material bearing upon it was so scattered and in some instances very fragmentary.

In connection with this phase of the work, it might not be amiss to state that the outlines used are in the process of revision and the writer hopes to have them published in the not far distant future.

These lessons seem to the writer to apportion to each of the five major sub-divisions into which the course was divided the amount of consideration that each deserves. The value of any course in Sociology in our secondary schools consists not in an intensive study of social pathological conditions, but rather in a careful analysis of those things that each normal individual can and must do to better the social life of which he is a part. This was secured in the last twenty-four lessons and what went before was merely a preliminary to and a foundation for that study.

In covering these eighty lessons, we proceeded upon the plan of using one lesson for a consideration of certain principles and the next lesson was devoted to problems which required for their solution a knowledge of the principles covered the preceding day.

In handling each day's discussion, we used the method which was outlined in some detail in my article in the December, 1920, issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK. All who are interested should consult this article.

### USE OF SPECIAL REPORTS

All students taking the course were required to give four special reports on assigned topics during the semester. There can be no question as to the value of special reports in courses in Social Science. They train the student to read intelligently, develop power to organize material and ability to present it effectively. One of the great shortcomings that is to be noticed in most reports is that the material is not properly arranged, but is largely a miscellaneous collection of facts. With a view to correcting this defect, the following things were done:

1. When a student was assigned a topic for a

special report, references were given showing the best sources to consult for material. This obviated any difficulty incident to the student not being able to find information on the report.

2. When giving reports, the form given below was followed:

I am to report today on the topic (give topic). I obtained my information (give sources). The following are the important things that should be remembered in connection with this report:

First,

Second,

Third, etc.

In giving a report, the student was not required to use the same phraseology given above, but the form had to be used.

3. These reports were not to consume more than four minutes.

4. At the conclusion of the recitation, the person making the report was to hand in to the instructor a synopsis of the report given.

5. All reports were to be given without the use of notes.

6. The reports were marked upon (a) thoroughness, (b) organization of material, (c) English and (d) effectiveness of presentation.

As a result of these requirements, the value of the reports was greatly enhanced. Students became interested in making reports, they volunteered readily to give them, did the work well and members of the class obtained much helpful information from them. The use of these special reports was regarded as one of the most valuable things in the course.

### SEMESTER PAPERS

Another requirement of those taking the course was the preparation of a semester paper on some subject of sociological interest. The worth of papers in courses in social science is no longer a matter of conjecture. The student who writes a paper learns to read purposefully, the critical faculty is developed, the balancing and weighing of evidence is required, the pupils must organize the material collected into a coherent whole and training in self-expression is secured by putting the results of the investigation into clear and effective English.

When it was decided to make this written work a part of the course, the question arose as to whether several short papers should be called for or whether one long paper should be required. It is the judgment of the writer that for Freshmen and Sophomores several short papers are the more desirable, but for Juniors and Seniors, who are capable of doing a more extended and detailed piece of work, one long paper is the better. It was decided, therefore, that each member of the class should write a single semester paper that would represent considerable work and constructive effort.

In selecting subjects for their papers, the students were strongly urged to choose subjects in which they were interested. This was very essential, because students will write much better papers on themes in

which they are interested than upon those in which they have no particular interest. To stimulate interest, the pupils were advised to choose subjects of local sociological interest and it was very refreshing to find that most of the subjects were of this character. Some of the subjects selected were: "The Work of the Salvation Army in Bucyrus," "Divorces in Bucyrus during the Past Ten Years," "Health Conditions in Bucyrus," "The Boy Scouts in Bucyrus and their work," etc.

In order that the material for the papers might be collected in a systematic way and in order that the papers might be properly and thoroughly written, each student was presented with a sheet of instructions dealing with the method by which data could be rightly obtained from books and magazines, personal interviews and letters, and also with the best way in which to write the paper. Below is a copy of the sheet of instructions given each student:

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING PAPERS IN SOCIOLOGY

##### I. The bibliography.

Make a bibliography carefully and begin reading. Make a schedule for your reading. It is a good plan to read a certain number of pages each day and allow nothing to keep you from this task.

##### II. Obtaining material from books and magazines.

In getting material from these sources, it will be very helpful to keep in mind the following things:

1. Obtain a small pocket size composition book for note taking.

2. Do not try to read too long an assignment at one sitting. Thirty-five to forty pages at one time is sufficient.

3. Read the assignment over carefully without taking notes, but observe the important things to be kept in mind.

4. Go over the assignment again, jotting down important items. Avoid taking down minute details.

5. In taking notes, be sure to record carefully, in addition to important data in the assignment, (1) the name of the book consulted, (2) the author of the book and (3) the page where each important item was found.

##### III. Obtaining material from the personal letter.

When the person from whom you desire data cannot personally be interviewed, you should address a letter or questionnaire to him. Keep in mind these things when you do this:

1. State briefly why you want the material asked for.

2. Make your letter or questionnaire clear and right to the point. This is very important. If you want exact data, your questions should be so clearly asked that there can be no mistake as to what you want.

3. Be sure that you enclose a self-addressed stamped envelope. If this is done, you will find that your inquiries will seldom go unanswered.

##### IV. Obtaining material from the personal interview.

One of the best ways to obtain information on a subject is through personally interviewing some one

who can speak authoritatively on the matter under consideration. In obtaining and using a personal interview, the following suggestions will be helpful:

1. In asking for an interview, you can write, phone, or personally call on the one to be interviewed. This should be done outside of business hours. A good time to do this is after lunch or dinner. You should make it clear what information you want and why you want it. Also, you should let it be known that you would be glad to have the interview at any time the one to be interviewed desires.

2. When you go for the interview, you should have a clear conception of what material you want and you should be to the point in asking questions. Busy people expect you to carry out your mission in a businesslike way. This method has been found very effective. Present a list of carefully worded questions which will give you the material that you want and suggest that these be answered at the convenience of the person interviewed. Be sure to leave a self-addressed stamped envelope. This method invariably gets good results.

3. Your success in getting an interview, as well as securing the information you desire, will depend largely upon your courtesy, tact and businesslike method of procedure.

#### V. Writing the Paper.

Two or three weeks before the paper is due, make an outline. Revise this carefully and then begin writing your paper. It is a good thing to make the first draft in pencil. If possible, write it at one sitting. Then go over this carefully, making needed additions and corrections. After your paper has been revised critically, copy in ink.

All papers handed in must be in ink, on white, ruled paper and written on one side only—regular theme paper is the best to use—neat in appearance and in the form given below:

(1)	
Subject	
Date	Name

On page 1, the subject of the paper should be on the middle line. In the lower left-hand corner, the date when the paper is due should be given and in the lower right-hand corner, the name of the writer should be placed.

(3)	
Subject	
1 Hayes, p. 8	1
2 Dealey, p. 16	2

On the first line of page 3, the subject should be written and two-thirds the way down the page the paper should be started. At the left, there should be an inch margin for marginal references. These references should indicate where statements not generally known or accepted were obtained.

(2)	
References	
1	
2	
3	
4	

On page 2, the sources (books, magazines, etc.) consulted for material should be given.

(4)	
3 King p. 127	3
4 Patten, p. 45	4

Every page from page 4 to the end of the paper should have the same form as the last third of page 3.

## VI. Conclusion.

In case of any difficulty, don't hesitate to consult the instructor. Remember that your papers will be marked upon the basis of thoroughness, organization of material, neatness and English. Get busy. Don't fail to do some work on your paper each day.

After the students compiled their bibliographies, they were submitted to the instructor for approval. This prevented the listing of books or magazines that would be of little value to the students in their work. With the aid of the instructor, the students determined the order in which the books and magazines should be read. Every two weeks, each student had to report to the instructor on the progress made. By this course, it was possible to keep in close touch with the work of each pupil and "loafing on the job" was prevented. Without this supervision on the part of the instructor, the semester papers would have, in all probability, degenerated into a joke.

The papers submitted in this course the past year were of exceptional excellence. High school boys and girls can write first-class papers if they know what they are to do and how to do it and if the instructor by close and careful supervision keeps them steadily and intelligently at work.

## VISITS TO LOCAL AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

To add interest to the work, as well as to give the students an opportunity to see at first hand how society cares for some of its misfits, trips of inspection to certain local and state institutions were arranged. The local jail and county almshouse were visited and trips were also taken to the Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield, Ohio; the School for the Blind, the School for the Deaf, the State Hospital for the Insane and the Ohio State Penitentiary, all at Columbus, Ohio. The visits to the jail and almshouse were compulsory but, because of the expense attached to the trips to Mansfield and Columbus, these were made optional. Nevertheless, over half of the class of 120 pupils went to Mansfield and Columbus, attesting to the interest the students had in this work. These trips were taken toward the close of the semester on an average of one per week. Prior to each trip, the problems which the trip was supposed to clarify were gone over thoroughly in class. To illustrate: The trip to Mansfield was to give the students some conception of the way in which young offenders are cared for by the state. Before going to Mansfield, several lessons were devoted to a consideration of the problem of crime and the work of the reformatory in relation to this problem. With this foundation or background, the trips could be made to yield a larger return.

With a view to increasing the purposefulness of these trips, each student was supplied with a set of suggestions setting forth the things to be kept in mind in going through the different institutions. Below is a copy of the sheet of suggestions given to each student:

## SUGGESTIONS FOR VISITING LOCAL AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

When you visit a public institution, your aim is to see whether that institution is accomplishing the purpose for which it was created. To do this intelligently, it is desirable to keep in mind the following things:

I. Your attitude. You should have an open mind, entirely free from favor or prejudice. You should be on the alert always to observe the big things and the details as well.

II. The physical properties. The physical properties of the institution should be noted. Is the institution well located? Are the buildings healthful—properly heated, plenty of light, well ventilated, kept clean, etc.? Are the buildings so constructed, located and equipped as to make possible the best kind of work?

III. The officials. The character of the officials should be observed carefully. Are they enthusiastic about their work? Do they possess a professional spirit? Are they courteous? Are they willing to show you everything in the institution? Do they answer questions willingly and thoroughly?

IV. The inmates. It is very important to note their condition. Is their morale good or bad? Seek to ascertain the reason or reasons for this.

V. The system. You should observe with care the system that is employed to handle the inmates. If a penal institution, does the system aim at revenge, punishment or reformation? If not a penal institution are the inmates taught useful work and kept busy, or is the opposite the case? In both types of institutions, how does each accomplish its ends? Is the work accomplished according to recognized scientific principles?

It is a good plan to take a notebook with you and after you have visited an institution jot down notes on the above matters. This will help you considerably in filling out your report sheet.

In order that the instructor might have some way of knowing what each student obtained from the trips and also that the students might receive training in organizing the information collected on the visits to different institutions, every student was required to hand in to the instructor the day after each trip a report on the institution or institutions visited. These reports had to be made on report sheets that were furnished each student gratis by the school and not more than one institution could be reported on a report sheet. Below is the type of report sheet used:

In visiting these institutions, the authorities accorded the class every possible courtesy. The benefits which accrued from these visits surpassed the fondest expectations. The students not only saw how social pathological cases are cared for, but incidentally gained some insight into what a normal individual can and should do to make the social group in which he lives more wholesome and better.

### Visitation Report

1. Institution visited :
2. Object of visit :
3. Favorable Comments :
4. Criticisms :
5. Miscellaneous items :

Information that cannot properly be included under 1, 2, 3 and 4 should be put under 5.

### PROJECTED ADDITIONS

With a view of strengthening the course this coming year, four important additions are being given consideration.

I. The first is to increase the number of trips so as to visit twelve institutions. The success of the inspection trips last year convinced the writer that the course could be greatly improved by visiting more institutions, local and state.

II. The second is to provide a method by which the students can keep in touch with current sociological events. This can probably be best done by requiring each student to subscribe for "The Survey" during the second semester. This magazine can be secured at a reduced rate in quantity orders for class use. One half of one recitation period would be given each week to a careful consideration of important sociological data set forth in the preceding week's issue of this periodical. To assist the students in this work, each one would be provided with an outline prepared by the instructor covering the important things that should be carefully studied. Such a step I cannot help but believe would be productive of splendid, practical results. Having once learned to study "The Survey" carefully, many of the students would undoubtedly continue the practice and thus keep in constant touch with the practical sociological activities of the day.

III. The third addition would provide for the conduct of a local social survey by the class. Such a survey would of necessity have to cover a very restricted field and the data secured would not be of great scientific value, but such work would be valuable to the students in showing how a social survey is conducted, the difficulties to be encountered, the need for pains and great care in collecting and evaluating material and the importance of the social survey. It would be a splendid vehicle for giving students an opportunity to develop self-expression. I am not oblivious to the dangers and difficulties to be encountered in attempting such a survey, but I believe that the benefits to be derived clearly outweigh any objections that might be raised against it.

IV. The last addition contemplates sectioning the class upon the basis of ratings secured in intelligence tests. By this process there will be one section of super-average pupils, three sections of average pupils and one section of sub-average pupils. This new method of sectioning the class will necessitate extra work on the part of the instructor in that three separate types of lessons for each day's work will have to be prepared, but it will have the distinct advantage of making the work conform to the mental age of the pupil better than is done under the present system. This innovation is in line with the progressive educational thought of the day and the results of this experiment will not be without some interest.

### CONCLUSION

To many, this course may appear like a very ambitious program and beyond the capacity of high school boys and girls. My experience has led me to the conclusion that, on the whole, we underestimate what high school boys and girls can do. The above course has been tried with excellent results and it is not impossible in other high schools. Any class of high school Juniors or Seniors can handle it acceptably, providing the instructor is sufficiently alert to keep constantly in touch with each student's work and guide him intelligently in pursuing it. If the instructor merely "turns the student loose" without careful supervision, confusion and shoddy work will be the inevitable result.

To my mind, this course meets a real need in our high schools today. It not only gives the student a supply of much needed information, but it trains his judgment, teaches him to think and organize material and, best of all, it gives him that training in self-development that must ever be the aim of all true education. This course ought to help materially in fitting the student to play a more constructive part in the social order of which he is a member.

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# Existing Standard Tests in History

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In this article I have attempted to give my conclusions as to the value of the various tests which are now on the market with the hope that I may aid the history teacher or supervisor in determining as to whether they care to make use of such tests.

These so-called standard tests may be classified into one of the following five divisions, according to the purpose which their author appears to have had in mind in formulating them. The main characteristics of these tests show that there has been an attempt to measure the amount of information that the pupil has accumulated from a history course, or to test the pupil's ability to reason, pass judgment and apply historical material. Oftentimes these purposes overlap. Perhaps the classification can best be shown in the table given below.

The above table will show that the most which has been done along this line is by way of the informational test. It is this type of test that is most seriously open to criticism, as it unduly emphasizes the child's memory ability at the expense of thought and reasoning. Judging from the content of the Starch, Sackett or Davis tests, we might assume that the aim in history teaching is the imparting of facts, to make the child a "walking encyclopedia." Professor Johnson has stated, "But a history examination reduced wholly to memory questions is unfair, unreasonable and a standing inducement to reduce history teaching to memorizing." "To examine in facts alone is in no real sense to examine in history."<sup>1</sup>

There is a movement afoot, however, to prove there is a close correlation between memory, judgment and reasoning abilities. Mr. Buckingham has investigated the proposition that pupils who rank high in memory ability will also rank high in the ability to reason and exercise judgment.<sup>2</sup> A thought series and also an information series were given to the same one

hundred and fifty-nine children of the eighth grade in a New York City school. The results showed that the pupils who ranked high in the thought series also ranked high in the informational series. "The best measure in the relationship between thinking and remembering is that the co-efficient is about  $+0.4$  with a probable error of about one-tenth of its size."<sup>3</sup> This might lead us to conclude that in testing memory you will also get a fairly accurate measure of the pupil's ability to think and reason. If this be true, and I believe that it is, then there may be some justification for a purely informational test. But why get at the pupil's ability to exercise reason by this indirect route? Why not measure these abilities separately?

Another criticism against the existing tests is that many of the facts called for or emphasized are not always of the most importance. Again this is particularly true of the Starch, Sackett and Davis tests. Surely, Professor Starch does not expect that we as teachers should continually drill our pupils on the year that the New Hampshire or New Haven colonies were founded; or that he considers it absolutely essential that Mary should know who was president in 1841 and just who was vice-president from 1841 to 1845 (called for in Question No. 42, Starch Test). Professor Sackett has likewise stressed dates and battles throughout his test. The Davis test deals often with unimportant details. For example, in Statement No. 1, Mr. Davis asks the pupil to underscore the correct word in the following, "The Pilgrims were kindly received by Chief Canonibus, Massasoit, Phillip, Powhatan." The point is this, that if we spend our time teaching unimportant facts, dates and battles to meet the demands of these tests—then we are missing the value of history. The purpose of history is to help us understand the present through the experience of the past. If we must

## CLASSIFICATION OF HISTORY TESTS

Informational.	Combination Thought & Inform.	Entirely Judgment.	Ability Test.	Character Test.
1. McCollum's U. S. Hist. Scale.	1. Harlan's Test Amer. Hist.	1. Van Wagenen's Amer. Hist. Scale. Thought Test Scale A.	1. Barr's Diagnostic Test in Amer. History. Series 2A & 2B.	1. Van Wagenen's Character Judgment Scale A.
2. Starch's Amer. Hist. Test.	2. Sackett's Scale Anc. Hist.			
3. Davis' Amer. Hist. Test.	3. Spokane U. S. Hist. Test.			
4. Hahn's History Scale.				
5. Van Wagenen Amer. Hist Information Test A.				



emphasize non-essentials then we are not doing the most possible in aiding our boys and girls to understand more clearly the problems with which they must deal as men and women.

Another bad feature is that many of these tests are too long for the allotted time. This is due largely to their being time tests. The McCollum, Davis and Sackett tests have a time limit. Pupils in the grades are allowed no longer time for taking the test than pupils in the high school. Under such circumstances we may be testing the pupil's ability to write because his success on the test will depend in part upon the rapidity with which he writes. Instead of asking the pupil to write out his answer to the question, it would be better to have him underscore the correct answer—then we would not be emphasizing the mechanics of writing.

Again, the majority of these tests can be used but once. After being used once, the teacher cannot keep from unconsciously drilling her pupils upon them, and this drill work would eliminate the value of the tests. Professor Tryon has stated that it is a misnomer to speak of these tests as standardized since they cannot be used over and over again without destroying their validity.<sup>4</sup>

Finally, difficulty is encountered in scoring many of the tests. This is particularly true when the author has set up an arbitrary system for grading and maintains there can be only one correct answer to a question. Van Wageningen has maintained there can be only one correct answer to his question and credit is not given for another valid answer. Question No. 3 of the Van Wageningen Information Scale A asks, "In what did the Indians live?" The answer is "wigwam"; but had the pupil given "dugout," "cave," no credit would be given. Again, often the questions are indefinite and more than one answer might be correct. For example, in the Harlan test is found the following: "If a man imprisoned in the county jail for some serious crime, should be taken out by a mob with the intention of hanging him,—What ought to be done first? Then what?" What shall be the answer as to "what ought to be done first?" If we are one of the mob we might say, "Hunt a telephone pole," or "Get a rope." The point is, that in good history teaching we should strive for the definite question.

My reader may be asking as to whether there is any favorable criticism to be made of these tests. Certainly it would be unfair to intimate that the contents of all of these tests are made up of details and non-essentials. Any of these tests may be given with profit if for no other reason than to enable the teacher to test the efficiency of her teaching and to see how well she was able to "drive-home" the material of the course. Also, supervisors by a legitimate use of these tests may compare the work of one school or community with corresponding work done elsewhere. Up to this time our comparisons have been based on mere opinion.

It might be well to point out separately some of the outstanding features of each test. Mr. McCollum,

in his test, has chosen the dates, personages, historical terms and a map study which are important and are the landmarks which any good teacher would want to stress. The Starch test lacks merit in comparison to the other tests; this test is formed on the competition-idea basis. The Harlan test contains historical personages, terms, places, dates and events which are well chosen. Mr. Harlan shows that he is interested in seeing that the student is able to grasp the big movements, correlate them, trace their causes and results. Professor Sackett's test emphasizes the non-essential and it is an open question as to whether the things called for are really worth doing. If we accept in full the Sackett test then we must return to the old type of history teaching with its emphasis on dates and battles. The Davis test continually calls on the pupil to make identifications. This test deals with American history of the colonial period. The Van Wageningen thought, information and judgment tests are a move in the right direction; here there is an attempt to measure more than one ability. The tests combined deal with all periods of American history. The Hahn History Scale is for the teacher's use only. This test is far too difficult for high school pupils. In the opinion of the writer, the Barr Diagnostic Tests come closer to meeting the requirements of an adequate test. Here the author tests the comprehension of the pupil, his ability to organize and analyze historical material, the evaluation of facts and the ability of the student to see cause-and-effect relationship.

Undoubtedly, there has only been a beginning in the progress which standardized test will make in the future. The authors of future tests can well afford to take the counsel of Professor Johnson in the following statement, "Not more than one-third of the examination should be devoted to the ability to remember. . . . The remainder of the paper should be devoted to tests of the ability to do; to interpret a major picture; to analyze a paragraph or page of history; to find material on a given topic; to solve by use of given material a simple problem in criticism; to recognize in facts different degrees of probability; to judge from a given description some historical character; to discover in the present conditions resemblances and differences to those of the past; to organize a given collection of facts; to select from the work of a term or year, facts of special importance and to tell why they are important."<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, p. 428.

<sup>2</sup> Buckingham, "Correlation between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember." *School and Society*, V., p. 445.

<sup>3</sup> Buckingham, "Correlation between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember." *School and Society*, V., p. 445.

<sup>4</sup> Tryon, *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, p. 164.

<sup>5</sup> Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, p. 428.

## A Socialized Recitation on the Colonial Question and the Federative Period in American History

BY B. W. WELLS, HIGH SCHOOL, APPLETON, WIS.

In these days when somewhere in the land we shall invariably find a state constitutional convention in session, when nations seek some form of association to save them from political and economic anarchy, when the oldest modern empire once again meets the issue of self-determination in a constituent part and involves the active sympathies of millions of American citizens, when the issue of exploitation is raised in connection with the insular holdings of our own beloved country, when the right to a free and full development is asserted in every type of social group,—in these days no one would deny the value in the study of American history of an emphasis upon the great federative effort which made us a nation, nor of an emphasis upon that preceding colonial problem which meant in one solution a gracious co-operation of peoples and in the other a schism in the world's greatest empire. Involved in that colonial problem and in that federative effort are principles of universal application, or, if you prefer to be conservative, principles which will be asserted in other times and in other places without limit.

I shall seek in this paper to describe a method pursued in developing these two major topics in the first semester of American history. That the problem and project methods offer substantial advantages in other subjects in the curriculum is admitted. History in the high school seems to be particularly immune to those manners of treatment so far. And yet Professor Seeley in his lectures on the Expansion of England says that "in history everything depends upon turning narrative into problems." One school holds that the study of history will not become activated and motivated until history becomes tributary to the solution of present-day social problems in a more direct way than present-day textbooks

suggest. The essence of the problem method lies in the free selection from alternative or varied means of that instrument which it is thought will best meet the ascertained human need. How much of any but our current history work involves that conscious choice which is the essence of creative effort? "To form"—let me quote Professor Seeley again—"to form any opinion or estimate of a great national policy is impossible so long as you refuse even to imagine any other policy pursued." Of course, you have a creative effort in composition when your student writes a term paper; you have a creative effort in research when he looks into sources and determines that to be false which was formerly believed to be true, or vice versa; you have a creative effort in dramatic art when he attempts to pose as a Napoleon or a Disraeli; but has he not missed much of the value of history until he has been placed by the teacher in a complex historical social crux and allowed to work his way out as did his fathers before him, consulting them through their statements in letter and speech, but never limited to their particular solvents in the solution of the problem?

Well, those are the ideas back of the attempt which I shall describe in detail as that we have used for four years in our high school in dealing with the framing of our national constitution and back of the more recent attempt to bring the colonial question within the field of student statesmanship.

There may be some question as to whether the term *socialized* should have a place in the title of this discussion. Because there is a field of free choice and social decision rather than teacher decision, I think I am justified in using the term, though I should also mention the fact that the teacher is an active element in the social group rather than a mere

looker-on, as in so many socialized attempts, the teacher contributing historical data and interpretation at the strategic point, but always through the parliamentary channel.

I shall first take up in this paper the method of the constitutional convention.

Previous to the convention there has been a study of the disintegrating forces acting up to the time of the convention, with mention of the efforts of interests and states to get together. Each student is assigned to a state delegation, the teacher holding a membership from Delaware, say. Some states have more delegates than others and the number is irrespective of the population of the states. The standing assignment for each student is this: On every question that arises he is to represent the interests of the state he is to come from wherever those interests are determinable from a study of the books; where it is apparent that no definite state interest is involved, he is to be free to exercise his own choice as to the stand he shall take. The library is provided with duplicates of Beard's *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*, Elliot's *Debates on the Federal Constitution*, the *Federalist*, *McMaster*, and *Hart's Contemporaries*, and single copies of *Curtis*, *Bancroft*, *Schouler*, *McLaughlin*, and others are available. Each student is to keep private minutes of the proceedings, which, with all his notes, are to be handed in for appraisal later. Anachronisms are to be avoided—there is to be no mention in the convention of events happening subsequent to the date of the convention. The whole fund of history previous may be drawn upon for illustrative and argumentative material.

The convention is called to order and a roll is framed in accordance with the previous arrangement of state delegations. The convention proceeds to elect a president by ballot, and a secretary also. History is departed from here in that a secretary in this case is chosen from the membership. The call of the convention issued by the Confederation Congress can be ordered read if it is desired to bring to the students' attention the limit which the Confederation government sought to put upon the agenda. A committee on rules is appointed, to report the next day (and that committee has the historical rules available), or if time is limited, I myself propose rules for adoption and it is resolved that the convention use the rules of procedure of ordinary parliamentary bodies, with this exception—that the previous question be not put on any matter substantive to the main object of the convention. The debate on the adoption of this rule, historical in its substance, can bring out the importance of preventing hasty action, the necessity of hearing all interests, in the framing of an instrument which can receive effective sanction only by the acceptance of a great variety of interests. It is also moved that matters substantive to the main object of the convention be moved in the form of resolutions or amendments thereto. This also is historic in its substance. To clarify a question which is sure to come up, it is moved that voting on substan-

tive matters be by states, each state having one vote, irrespective of the size of the delegation.

The issue of secrecy arose in 1787 as at Versailles in 1919 and as at Washington in 1921. A rule can be proposed to prohibit revelations to outsiders of discussion by members, if it is desired to deal with the values and dangers of secrecy in such undertakings.

In 1787, frequent changes in the opinions of members were anticipated, and to make such changes easy and to lessen the opportunity for adversaries later to secure leverages if the journal were published, it was determined not to have the yeas and nays entered upon the minutes. For the class convention, however, it is desirable to have the secretary keep a record of the yeas and nays and to have a roll call upon most substantive issues. The teacher is aided thereby in determining the consistency of the representation.

In the historical convention, there was much use of the committee of the whole house and the proposition of large plans was made by individual members, as in the *Randolph*, *Pinckney*, and *Patterson* cases. To secure a somewhere nearly equal division of labor and to give definite responsibility to all parts of the class for the presentation of some proposition, we use a system of committees appointed by the chair through private connivance with the teacher. We have committees on the following phases: Representation in the Legislature, Method of Choice and Term of Legislature, Method of Choice and Term of Executive, Method of Choice and Term of Judiciary, Powers of Legislature, Powers of Executive, Powers of Judiciary, and Method of Amendment and Ratification. The appointments are so arranged that in most cases there is a guaranty of conflict in opinion on the committee if each member reads the interest of his state aright. This makes minority reports possible and insures a keener analysis before the presentation of the measure to the house. There is no deification of rules. The student comes to see the vital bearing of procedure and terminology upon fair hearing and the communication of thought. The aim is to so plan the procedure that what comes up rises naturally out of dominant interests determined largely by a study of the sources.

The great compromises on the basis of representation and on the regulation of commerce, including the slave trade, are prolonged until there is a demand for a statement of the philosophy of compromise and an opportunity for again comparing the losses to each faction through compromise with the losses to be sustained through a return to the old and weak confederation state.

Here in a semi-historical setting, with such a wealth of historical suggestion as *Elliot's Debates* and the *Federalist* afford, with now the strenuous co-operation and now the strenuous competition of an instructor on the plane of membership, statesmanship develops with an apparent rapidity.

The nature of representation, the possibility of responsibility in leadership, the bi-cameral legisla-

ture, the checks and balances system in all its ramifications, executive and judicial subserviency to the legislature, the implied power idea, state sovereignty versus the sovereignty of the individual, minority rule through veto and two-thirds rules, the function of government as a protector of the weak rather than as an instrument of positive action in the hands of the strong, the limitations which popular desire place upon the carrying out of fine theories, the degree in which Mr. Taft's statement that compromise is the essence of legislation is true,—where before or since has political science found such a mine to draw upon?

The instructor as a member sets the pace in the use of historical material. For instance, we shall suppose that the question of a choice of the executive by the legislature arises and that the instructor member favors parliamentary government. Certain objections are raised to having the ministry or the executive subservient to congress. It is objected that the executive will become a mere tool, that he will lose his independence of character, etc. In reply, Walpole, Pitt, and Granville and the resignation of ministries rather than their yielding are cited to disprove the allegation of loss of independence of character, and the struggle of the colonial assemblies is cited to prove that control of the executive is necessary. It is asserted that we shall have a new executive every fortnight. It is replied that the history of the English ministries from the beginning of the eighteenth century to 1787 shows long and short terms, but that the average is not less than four years, and that the change of ministry does not depend upon an artificial factor. It is asserted that it is the duty of the executive to execute the law and not to meddle with legislation. It is replied that the discovery of the need often is at the point of administration, that Pitt's demands for support from parliament in the Seven Years' War came from greater knowledge and that his demands if recognized constituted leadership in legislation as well as in execution, that party leadership involves obligations in the insurance of legislation. The index to Elliot's Debates contains eighteen citations under the heading "Election by the Legislature."

Incidentally, the students become parliamentarians, and incidentally, though often engaged in a strenuous struggle to make their viewpoints prevail, they develop a sense of the necessity for deliberation and fair hearing which is absolutely essential to good citizenship. Native traits are revealed and through the teacher's artful participation as a member subjected to the treatment of socially-arrived-at rules.

We haven't time for a committee on detail to put the finishing touches on the work of the convention at the end. We merely ask the secretary to incorporate all resolutions and amendments carried into one instrument. A charted comparison of our constitution with the historical constitution is then drawn up by each student through the use of his minutes and of the historical instrument. We devote six weeks to this unit of work.

Meanwhile, the last two weeks of the convention the student has been engaged in a little research study of the ratification campaign in his individual state. All citations are carefully made and a definite summary of conclusions handed in as to leaders and economic interests supporting and opposing ratification, as to leading arguments pro and con, as to the proposition of amendments or reservations, and as to the degree of haste in consideration. In this short but carefully prepared paper, the student also states ways in which the ratification campaign in his state is found similar to or contrasted with the ratification campaign in the case of the covenant of the League of Nations.

The colonial question I shall deal with very briefly. This treatment is also partially imaginative, but drawing upon historical data largely.

Preceding the opening of the House of Commons, there is a study of the regularly available references, including Hart's Contemporaries, Fiske, Howard, Lecky, and others, and a three weeks' study of Burke's Speech on Conciliation. Each student has a copy of the latter and is asked to complete a mimeographed partial brief of the speech. This partial completion of the brief saves time, affords a type for procedure, and helps the student over the hard parts. An introduction to the style and setting is given through oral delivery of some parts of the speech by teacher and students, but not enough is done in this preliminary study to take the freshness off from the possible contributions which students may wish to make from reading in Burke and elsewhere when we come to our House of Commons session. Franklin's complete works in Bigelow's edition, Lord Mansfield's speech, and much other source material is made available.

March, 1775, is set as the date for the session. A speaker and clerk are selected. A ministry of the Lord North type is represented on the floor of the house by the instructor and two or three keen students and is to be addressed as "the ministry" or "the government." This ministry assumes the initiation of measures outlining a fundamental policy to be followed in the matter of the colonies. One member of the ministry introduces a set of resolutions and indicates that the ministry would like to have each taken up separately and in order. It is understood that there are to be no anachronisms. Reference may be made to Mr. Burke's arguments as matters of fact delivered a few days previous. The set of resolutions develop the government's point of view, but not necessarily in the historical phraseology. The resolutions are of this type:

1. Resolved, That the colonies are as well represented in the Parliament as are parts of Great Britain.
2. Resolved, That the colonies have not asked for more representation than they at present have.
3. Resolved, That the colonies have not been burdened by taxes more than parts of England.

4. Resolved, That Parliament has the right to grant, withdraw, and modify the charter of any corporation, whether colonizing or otherwise, and that therefore it has the right to modify the government of any individual colony.

5. Resolved, That the right of any colonial legislature to levy taxes within the colony does not imply that an *imperial* tax may not be levied by Parliament.

6. Resolved, That revolt is not the proper method of changing a political system; that all legal means must be exhausted before any extra-legal methods are justified.

7. Resolved, That influence is no government; that no government can long continue to exist except on the basis of recognition on the part of the individual that government has the legal right to levy and collect taxes; and that if an individual does not recognize that right, it is the first business of government to make him recognize that right.

8. Resolved, That the fact that a taxpayer is willing at times to pay more than is required does not relieve him from taxes at other times.

9. Resolved, That disaffection in the colonies is a symptom of a stage in which the colonies are being educated to increased government and that this increase is common to every increase in population and trade.

10. Resolved, That the core of the opposition to His Majesty's rule in the colonies lies in a group of smuggling interests.

11. Resolved, That the solution of the present problem lies in a stricter enforcement of the law.

12. Resolved, That, therefore, no law on the statute books at the present time should be repealed merely for the purpose of concession.

The government does not welcome amendment and prefers a defeat on a resolution rather than the substitution of an idea at variance with the logic of its policy, but indicates that substitute or supplementary resolutions may be offered after the whole group is disposed of. If the fact and philosophy of Burke is clear to the student you may be sure that there will be additional resolutions. The students feel the ingenuity and binding quality of the set of resolutions offered by the ministry. It is well that they do—that they may be driven as was Burke to frame and phrase a larger policy and to recognize that the growth of personality and population will crack all the shells of legal theory that seek to constrain them.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before the history section of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association at Milwaukee, November 4, 1921.

## RECENT HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

By **FREDERIC L. PAXSON**

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# An Organization to Promote the Social Studies

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

The professional spirit is becoming stronger among teachers. There is a growing realization that the fullest service cannot be rendered by unorganized individual effort; that co-operation is necessary if work is to be done economically and most effectively. The National Council of English Teachers is a powerful and aggressive body and its work is beginning to tell in the schools. Similar associations of teachers of mathematics, of modern languages, etc., extending throughout the United States number their members by thousands. The social studies stand almost unique in their lack of the very co-operation which their champions teach. This field almost alone has remained undeveloped by a national organization.

It is true that within the field covered by the social studies there are national organizations of professors of history, economics, political science, and sociology; and that each of these organizations has given some thoughtful consideration to the problems of school curricula through committees on teaching. But these associations of university and college professors are concerned primarily with research, the discovery of truth, the systematic development of a body of knowledge, and with college and university teaching. The fact that the American Modern Language Association found itself unable to give adequate attention to school problems resulted in the formation of the two national organizations of teachers,—one for English and the other for modern foreign languages. Both of these are now powerful, supporting journals of their own and in other ways advancing the causes to which their members have committed themselves.

The very existence of four organizations of college teachers who might interest themselves more fully in the social studies in the schools has turned out to be a handicap in the development of these studies. Each group of college men wish to have its subject fully represented in the school curriculum. Consequently a little friction has grown up among those who should be working shoulder to shoulder to secure a common cause. The economists and the political scientists are far from agreement as to what should constitute a course in civics. The historians feel that there is danger of history being replaced by a patchwork collection of unrelated and unsystematic material. The sociologists believe that a failure to understand their program is preventing their natural allies from helping them to accomplish it. Therefore, no one can be much surprised that the social studies thus torn by internal misunderstanding cannot present as convincing an argument to the makers of school curricula as can the really organized subjects.

Last March, the nucleus of a National Council of Teachers of the Social Studies was formed; and a considerable number of persons have become members of it. The chairman of the committees on school problems of the four great associations of scholars

related to the social studies have accepted official responsibility for it in this first formative year, thus indicating their interest and willingness to help: from the American Economic Association, Professor Marshall, of University of Chicago; from the American Political Science Association, Professor Munro of Harvard University; from the American Historical Association, Professor Johnson of Teachers College, Columbia University; and from the American Sociological Society, Professor Finney, of the University of Minnesota. The management of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* has indicated its willingness to co-operate fully and generously with the new movement; and Professor McKinley of the University of Pennsylvania, Managing Editor of the journal, has accepted the Presidency of the Council for one year. Eminent school men such as Commissioner Meredith of Connecticut; Principal Church, Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals; and Professors Judd and Sheldon, respectively of the Schools of Education of the Universities of Chicago and of Oregon; have become sponsors of the movement in this its trial year. No one has been found who thinks that the organization is not needed; no arguments have been discovered against its future; nothing remains to make it successful and useful except the co-operation of a large number of teachers in whose interest it has been formed. Will you, who are now reading this announcement, do your part? Will you join the movement at once and make an effort to inform those near you who should interest themselves in it?

At one time it seemed as if it would be necessary to spend several hundred dollars in circularizing the teachers of the social studies throughout the country; and to do so would have added a good deal to the burdens of the unpaid secretary who has already joined with the other officers in financial and other expenditures to get the movement started. It has been decided, instead of circularizing the teachers, to address about five thousand of them without expense through *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. A large majority of those who should support this movement are readers of this journal; and there are but few progressive teachers of the social studies in the country who cannot be reached by *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* or by some one of its interested readers. Will you make yourself a committee of one to send in at least one other name in addition to your own, and do this within the next week or ten days? The secretary is working over this announcement on a beautiful Saturday morning when he would prefer to be playing golf. Will you also give an answer to the question, "What are you going to do about it?"

An arrangement has been made with *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* by which the annual dues can for the present be kept very low. A journal being thus

provided; and the secretary's office making no draft this year on the exchequer, the amount of the dues is only a mild test of the interest in the proposed movement. Two forms of membership are offered. The first costs one dollar and furnishes an annual copy of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* devoted to a summary of the progress of the social studies during the year closing with that number. It is hoped that this annual number may develop into a considerable year book as the association grows. The second form of membership costs two dollars and a half; and it provides subscription to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (price \$2.00). This announcement does not mean to argue, however, on the basis of what the members will in the near future get out of the organization. It argues the obligation of every member of a profession to do his part in lifting the level of the profession to its highest usefulness; and with this end in view, to co-operate with the leading agencies which contribute to this end. The National Council of Teachers of the Social Studies is the one organization of nation-wide extent devoted primarily to the purpose of making the teaching of these studies most effective; its journal is the only journal devoted primarily to this cause; its membership includes the leading members of contributory agencies; it is in a sense a federation of these agencies for the fullest co-operation; membership in it is nominal; what is most needed is a willingness to be catalogued for the purpose of being called on to contribute information and to help to distribute it. It is difficult to see how any virile teacher of the social studies can hesitate to join it.

The reader is urged to bring the matter before the members of the various national associations at the approaching December meetings and before the members of local associations in such meetings as are held this winter and next spring, in order that no one may be overlooked. The larger the membership the larger the number it will be possible to serve and the larger the service it will be possible to render to each. If the reader does not think the organization is needed, he is urged to write to the secretary to that effect in order that the sentiment of the country may be determined. If the organization as thus far planned does not meet with his approval, despite his approval of the general purpose; he is urged to write this to the secretary in order that his views may be reflected in the new draft of a constitution to be submitted at the next annual meeting. In a word, the important thing is to let your wishes be known; whether you approve an organization to advance the social studies and whether you approve and support this kind of one.

Please send your application for membership to the secretary promptly.

EDGAR DAWSON,  
671 Park Avenue,  
New York City.

## News of Associations

### NEW JERSEY ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES

The Fourth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Teachers of Social Studies and the Second Official Meeting of the Association of that name was held at Rutgers College, New Brunswick, on October 29th. This Association is one of the largest and most flourishing of the Secondary School Associations of New Jersey.

The program was as follows: Opening remarks by the President of the Association, S. B. Howe, Newark Junior College; Address, "Reconstructing the Social Studies," Earle U. Rugg, Teachers College; Address, "Social Values of English Literature," Professor Charles S. Crow, Rutgers College. Business Meeting: Report of the Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Helen Biddle, Plainfield High School; Election of Officers. Address, "The Use of Current Periodicals in Teaching Social Studies," Mr. J. M. Gathany, East Orange High School; Address, "The Socialized Recitation in History," Miss Louise Capen, Battin High School, Elizabeth, N. J.; Address, "The Social Sciences as Factors in Economic Readjustment," Mr. Irving J. Townsend, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.; Discussion, led by the Vice-President of the Association, Mr. H. Miles Gordy, Vice-Principal, Battin High School, Elizabeth, N. J.

Mr. Howe in his opening remarks answered the question which some have asked, "What is the value of a State Association of Teachers of Social Studies in a State covered by the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland?" He held that New Jersey has problems of curricula peculiarly her own and is engaged in real laboratory work along these and other lines of significance to her teachers of Social Studies. This Association is serving as a clearing house for information concerning all these matters. The very fact that it has held four enthusiastically attended meetings at which live programs were presented and eagerly discussed is warrant enough for its existence.

Mr. Rugg pointed out the necessity of establishing scientific measurements of achievement in the teaching of history and other social studies and reported on the results of investigations along that line.

Professor Crow had agreed to speak on "The Project Method of Teaching History in a High School," but chose instead to discuss the "Social Values of English Literature," giving the results of the questionnaire he has recently conducted in Secondary Schools to obtain the reaction of the students on social values of standard literary works now studied in the High Schools.

Mr. J. Madison Gathany, who is well known for his studies in current history, made a most convincing argument for the use of current periodicals, which aroused the greatest interest of the teachers present.



Miss Capen gave a succinct and practical outline of the method of the "Socialized Recitation" as she uses it.

Mr. Townsend showed that no subject in the curriculum can be a greater factor in economic readjustment than the social sciences.

The Nominating Committee, consisting of Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the Trenton Normal School, and Miss Sarah Hughes, of the Ridgewood High School, placed in nomination for 1921-1922, the following names:—President, S. B. Howe, Newark Junior College; Vice-President, H. Miles Gordy, Vice-Principal, Battin High School, Elizabeth, N. J.; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Helen Biddle, Plainfield High School. All these officers were unanimously elected.

### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held a meeting at Swarthmore, Pa., on Saturday, November 26, in conjunction with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the same territory. The newly installed President of Swarthmore College, Dr. Frank Aydelotte, spoke upon the topic: "Disarmament"; and Mr. William Gardner, of New York, discussed "The Problems of the Pacific." Luncheon was served at the college.

### OHIO HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

A joint session of the Ohio Valley Historical Association and the Ohio History Teachers Association was held at Columbus, on November 11 and 12. The program included the following general historical papers: "Celoron de Blainville and French Expansion in the Ohio Valley," by Prof. G. A. Wood, Ohio State University; "The Military Office in America, 1768-1775," by Prof. C. E. Carter, Miami University; "Three Early Anti-Slavery Newspapers of the Ohio Valley," by Miss Annetta Walsh, North High School, Columbus; and "How an Ohio Valley University Got into the World War," by Prof. W. H. Siebert, of Ohio State University.

The professional papers included: "Experiments in Elementary School History," by Miss Olive Bucks, Cleveland School of Education; "Materials for History Teaching in the Publications of the State Historical Society," by Mr. C. B. Galbreath, Secretary of the Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society; "Some Problems of the History Teacher," by Prof. B. W. Bond, Jr., University of Cincinnati; "Some Experiments with College Flunkers," by Prof. H. C. Hockett, Ohio State University; and "High School History Teaching *versus* College History Teaching," by President S. H. Ziegler, of the History Teachers Association.

The following officers were chosen: President, Arthur H. Hirsch, Ohio Wesleyan University; Secretary, G. A. Washburne, Ohio State University; Executive Committee, Grace A. Todd, Akron; J. H. Hughes, Lodi; George Neeb, Columbus.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Sept. 24 to Oct. 29, 1921

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Bassett, John S., and Fay, Sidney B. *The Westover journal of John A. Selden, Esq., 1858-1862*. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College; 75c.
- Brawley, Benjamin G. *A social history of the American Negro [Including a history of Liberia]*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 420 pp. (183½ p. bibl.). \$4.00 net.
- Cherry, P. P. *The Western Reserve and early Ohio*. Akron, O.: R. L. Fouse. 333 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Cushing, Charles H. *A birthday book of Kansas City, 1821-1921*. Kansas City, Mo.; Burton Pub. Co. 40 pp. 50c.
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# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing*

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE

VOLUME XII

JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1921

PHILADELPHIA

McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

1921



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# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

Volume XIII.  
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1922

\$2.00 a year.  
25 cents a copy.

## The Immigrant in American History

BY CARL WITTKE, PH. D., OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

In the summer of 1918, thirty-three Americans, representatives of as many racial and national groups, made a pilgrimage to the tomb of Washington, to pledge allegiance anew to the country of their adoption. Recently, the Roosevelt Memorial Association discovered that the old Roosevelt homestead in New York was now the home of the firm of Podolsky and Goldenberg. News dispatches of the recent monarchist *coup* in Germany stirred someone to make the discovery that Wolfgang Kapp, five-day ruler of Germany, was the son of a prominent New York "Forty-Eighter," who had left the Fatherland in search of greater liberty. Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, usually prominent in the story of American "Big Business" and material prosperity, occasionally attracts attention as the home of the Bach festival, and the historic trombone choir playing its chorals from the belfry of what was once the religious home of quaint Moravian pioneers.

News items like these compel us to reflect upon the complexity of American society, and bring to mind the grand central theme of American history, the contact of successive immigrant tides with the New World environment, and the interaction of racial characteristics and geography. Other examples, almost without limit, could be given to illustrate the influence of the dozens of racial groups which have helped to mould the life and standards of the American nation. Yet this phase of United States history has never been sufficiently investigated by those interested in research or exploited by those who are teachers. The influence of environment upon the settler has been, for a generation, adequately stressed by that vigorous cult of scholars who claim for the frontier atmosphere, and for "the New West," perhaps more than their proper share as determining forces in United States history. We have, until very recently, almost wholly neglected the other side of the problem of this interaction of racial and geographical factors, and very little has been said of the peculiar reaction of the various racial groups to the new environment, and still less of the many things they brought with them to affect and determine much of our political, economic and social development.

The war brought us face to face with the problem of our polyglot population, and produced an energetic corps of Americanization workers, who toiled arduously, sincerely, and sometimes almost hysterically, in the laudable cause of making "100 per cent Americans." It will be extremely unfortunate, however, if our interest in this phase of the problem

closes our minds to the need of studying and appraising the real contributions of the different racial groups to American life. Indeed, it would seem that true Americanization can never be intelligently carried out until we have first seriously investigated what the foreigner brought with him, and the effect he has had on our political and social history.

In one sense, the whole colonial period is the story of various waves of immigration from the old world to the new, but of course, interest attaches mainly to the non-English elements in the colonial population. A study of the names upon the muster-roll of Washington's Army or in the first Census, will convince anyone of the great number of non-English foreigners there were in America in colonial times. New England Puritans were never very hospitable to those "who walked another way," but in the South, and particularly in the middle colonies, the immigrant played an important role in colonial affairs. The Huguenot influence is rather difficult to trace, due to the rapid assimilation of this race element, but nevertheless the number of French names prominent in our early history is quite appreciable. There is no such difficulty in tracing the influence of the Germans and Scotch-Irish. The rapid growth of the middle colonies in the half century after 1690 was due largely to immigration of the non-English elements, and the colonial history of Pennsylvania, for example, is full of instances of the influence of the German farmer and the Scotch-Irish frontiersman upon the affairs of the Quaker Commonwealth. The arrival of the German mystics raised problems of religion and government that seriously affected the history of these colonies, and that continue to trouble governments to our own time. In Pennsylvania particularly, the Germans came in such numbers and settled in such compact groups, that they produced that peculiar variety of "Pennsylvania Dutch" who are still so distinct from the native stock in language and mode of life, that the characterizations in the Pennsylvania Dutch stories of Helen R. Martin, or in such plays as "Erstwhile Susan" are still fascinatingly interesting to the "native" American. The Scotch-Irish became the "cutting edge of the frontier," and even in colonial times, constituted a fiercely democratic and agrarian radical group which proved troublesome in many a conflict between the frontier counties and the older East, and of which such disturbances as the Regulator movement in North Carolina, and the Whiskey Insurrection in Pennsylvania, are only the best known examples. Both the Germans and the Irish con-

tributed more than their share to the revolutionary cause, and an examination of the names of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, or the membership of the early Congresses and the Constitutional Convention, will reveal a large percentage of foreign-born.

The first newspapers to function in the political movements after 1789 were edited by immigrants; most of our early public works were directed and planned by foreign-born engineers, and in the field of education the same influences were at work. In the movement for the development of free public schools, the labor organizations probably played a larger part than has hitherto been admitted. This influence is to be traced to the rise of an industrial class of city-dwellers, many of whom were immigrants. The demands that arose from these congested industrial centers may have been just as important in advancing the cause of political and industrial democracy in the United States as any of the conditions that existed or developed on the frontier. Our religious history has been greatly affected and complicated by the arrival of so many foreigners and religious sects which looked upon America as the testing place for methods of salvation or modes of life, many of which of necessity took the form of communistic enterprises. Even in accounting for the great revivals which shook the frontier communities in the early nineteenth century, and which have usually been attributed to the influences of an unconquered wilderness and the peculiar hazards of frontier life, one wonders how much ought to be credited to the high religious voltage the Scotch-Irishman brought with him.

In the nineteenth century, it is possible to trace various waves of immigration, which followed each other at rather sharply marked intervals. The Irish came with a rush in the forties. In spite of the Irishman's much advertised love for the old sod, he became a city-dweller, for reasons which no one has as yet been able to explain satisfactorily. Every city of any size soon had its "Shanty-town" problems. The native politician exploited the remarkable political genius of the Irish, the Irishman came to realize his worth as a political factor in local and national elections, and demanded, very naturally, ever more recognition. General Scott, in 1852, found it necessary to cater to both the German and the Irish vote, and attended mass in the morning and Protestant services in the afternoon, so that he might not offend any of his prospective supporters. The Fenian Movement is but the most spectacular example of Irish influence on American affairs. It threatened for a time to bring serious complications with Great Britain. The Irish question has been recognized in the national platforms of both parties, and in 1920, we had evidence of the interest that Senators and Congressmen could take in the affairs of the Irish Republic, whose "President" found it worth while to tour America in support of the Irish cause. What the Irishman has contributed to the American theater, particularly the vaudeville house, to American wit and humor, to American labor problems and to Amer-

ican political methods, largely remains a matter for future investigation and appraisal.

After the Irish, came the Germans, and most prominent among them, those free thinkers and liberals who left Germany in 1848, after the collapse of the republican movement. In the middle of the nineteenth century, the Germans, as farmers, became an important factor in the winning of the west, and for a period, numerous attempts were made to plant a "German state" within the United States, perhaps in Texas or Wisconsin. The German-language press became important in the middle of the last century, and was an important influence in drawing the German element to the Republican party in the slavery struggle. It has continued a powerful factor in American political contests to the present day. The German vote became the deciding one in the political life of several states, and to the present time, both parties are making good use of the foreign-language press and employ campaign speakers who can address the voters in their native tongue. John Quincy Adams refused to attend a large meeting of Pennsylvania Germans in 1828, which had been arranged so that he might address them in their own tongue, because he believed it unbecoming to the dignity of his office. But more recently, even the politician who is most eager to denounce the hyphenated American at other times, in political campaigns does not hesitate to corral the foreign vote, or even to play off the prejudices of the various groups against each other.

The Germans brought the Kindergarten, the Turnverein, the Sngerfest, the Continental Sunday, and the ideas of personal liberty which were perhaps necessary to temper the gloom of Puritanism. Milwaukee became the "Athens of America," a leader in art, music, and the theater, and a beacon light of culture to break the monotony of the American frontier. It was a Bostonian who wrote—"From Yankee Doodle to Parsifal in less than seventy years is the record of German influence on the development of musical taste in America." The influence of the foreign-born on American music—orchestral, chamber and opera—can hardly be over-estimated.

The Scandinavian element selected the West and Northwest for its home. Even today, a corner of Iowa is known as "The Scandinavian Northwest," and one can find at least seventy-five names of Minnesota Post Offices so Scandinavian that they defy all efforts of the English tongue to pronounce them, and it is possible to travel in the Dakotas for miles and miles without leaving land which belongs to a Scandinavian. Like the German, the Scandinavian has been an important factor in bringing the west under the plough. Politically, the Scandinavian element has been classed as "rock-ribbed" Republican, and that party has catered to it by political patronage, special campaign speakers, and advertisements for the Scandinavian press. But even the Scandinavian, due to economic grievances, has found it possible occasionally to break with his old political affiliations, and the experiment in state socialism, conducted by the Non-Partisan League in Dakota, is to a large



extent supported by the foreign-born. Indeed, both political and religious radicalism in this country has frequently received its original stimulus and support from the immigrant classes.

During the last generation, the character of our immigration has so greatly changed that it has caused alarm and dismay among many "native" Americans. We are therefore perhaps more familiar with the economic, social and political problems which the Slav, and the East and South-European in general, have brought to America. But here also much of our information undoubtedly rests upon prejudice, rather than scientific investigation. The news of the recent Steel Strike contained many allusions to the influence of these new arrivals on our industrial life, but the reports seldom told the whole story. Most of these new arrivals are well organized in racial or national societies, and in some cities, they exercise real political influence. The propaganda for a new Czecho-Slovak Republic was to a considerable degree "made in America," by Czech societies in the United States. The Federation of Italian Societies of America apparently urged and instructed its members to vote against the Democratic candidate in 1920, due to dissatisfaction with the European settlement after the war,—a course dangerously suggestive of the unwarranted political activities of the recently dissolved German-American Alliance. It is perhaps too early to estimate the contributions of these new arrivals to American life, but no one can fail to see the tremendous influence they have had on our industrial problems, or the political power they are beginning to exercise.

The reaction of the "native American" toward these various foreign groups is equally interesting, for nearly every group, in the beginning, caused some alarm among those already here. In colonial times, during the French and Indian War, some were inclined to look with dissatisfaction upon the German sects whose "tender consciences" would not permit them to participate in war. Franklin was disturbed by the clannishness of the Germans in Pennsylvania, while Penn's secretary was displeased with "the swarms from the Hibernian Hive," who tended to become "a distinct people from His Majesty's subjects." The repressive measures of John Adams' presidency were not wholly the result of war hysteria. Behind the Naturalization Act particularly was a New England Federalist desire to cripple the opposite party, which attracted the foreign-born voter, or the wish to curb the influence of "wild Irishmen," who were found by a Connecticut Yankee to be "the most God-provoking Democrats on this side of Hell." In the forties, the Native American movement broke out with great violence. It was directed against various classes of immigrants, but particularly against the Irish Catholics, who were swarming into the eastern cities by the thousands. The Catholic Church for several decades was really an immigrant church, and coupled with the political side of nativism there was a fundamental antagonism to what seemed a foreign ecclesiastical power. The result was a series of political conflicts over the questions of public and

parochial schools, curricula, taxation, office-holding, etc., which made the campaigns of the forties and fifties in many localities the most violent in our history. The Know Nothing movement was a revival of this nativist agitation, and under the guise of such secret orders as "The Order of the Star-Spangled Banner," it assumed such strength that it promised for a time to displace one of the older major political parties. In the South especially, it threatened to become the successor of the Whig organization. The Southerner had come to realize that the foreign-born population of the North often held the balance of political and economic power, and was, of course, decidedly anti-slavery. Furthermore, contrary to the popular notion, there were some Southern cities in Louisiana and the border states, where there was a real immigrant problem, and where the foreign-born almost equalled the native stock. The Know Nothing movement was largely anti-Irish, and anti-Catholic, although the anti-Catholic aspect was never much emphasized in the South. But it was also anti-German in some sections, while on the Pacific coast, in the same general period, Irish Catholics and other European stocks were banding together in a nativist movement which had as its object the expulsion of the Oriental immigrant. The Know Nothing party disappeared as rapidly as it had arisen, broken into fragments by the slavery controversy. It was a curious fate that Know Nothings and Germans and other immigrants were united a little later under the banner of the Republican Party, but it was a union which required the most skillful steering of the politicians to bring about. The A. P. A. movement in the nineties, such orders as the "Guardians of Liberty," and some aspects of the recent revival of the Ku Klux Klan all illustrate that the spirit of political nativism is not dead, even though it certainly lacks the vigor of earlier days.

The student and the teacher who interests himself in this hitherto neglected phase of our history has an almost virgin field before him, and can labor with the zeal and fervor of a pioneer. It is true that several of our racial groups have had their historians, but even the best of these have hardly made a beginning, while, in some cases, their work shows so much of "the will to believe," that one hesitates to accept their results as entirely dependable. A teacher who interests himself in this side of American history can hardly fail to make his course attractive, and he who desires to continue to enjoy the stimulus that comes from productive scholarship, can find the subject and the materials for his research close at hand, if he will but delve into the history of the foreign group he finds in almost any local community. He will be serving the cause, for it is only after such an intensive study of many localities has been made, that we can begin to write and speak with authority and certainty on this important phase of our national history.

# The Window of World History—and the Educational Vista

BY PROFESSOR ELDON GRIFFIN, UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

"That there's the window, and the thing out side the window—yon's the world."—Jenny, in Barrie's *The Wedding Guest*.

"Professors at Oxford University say of the American Rhodes scholars . . . that they . . . are deficient in scholarship in a wide sense. They seldom settle down to a long spell of steady work." "The boys in the expeditionary force, who were fortunate enough to spend some time at the English universities, were told that they did not, over there, 'take courses' or study textbooks, but 'got up subjects.'" These words, attributed to a leading American university president, point to scrappiness as one of our educational weaknesses.

That "students from the high schools of the state seem to know no history at all when they come to college as freshmen," is the gist of the opinion of the head of the department of history in one of the western universities.

Professor Clifford H. Moore, chairman of the Committee on Instruction at Harvard, in speaking of the general final examinations in the college, says that they secure "'concentration' in related subjects" and that they encourage "the mastery of *subjects* or *fields* rather than of courses."

"Valuable as these books are, they are not what I want for the course in World History . . . Asia and other 'outlying' regions are of such consequence to us today that we must understand their . . . history. This means that we have to take an entirely new point of view and shift the old emphasis."

The reader naturally gathers from the foregoing lines the idea that our methods of instruction and of study are inadequate. In no field is this feeling of dissatisfaction more justified than in history, where aims seem to be confused, and even vague ideals are only partially realized. Professor Emerton, in his series of delightful essays, "Living and Learning," alludes to the absence of any general course in the curriculum of which his courses have been a part for so many years, and indicates the need of the student's reading such an extensive range of material that the parts of historical knowledge may be organized as a whole. Perhaps some of the reasons for the introduction of a course in world history at the University of Oregon are apparent. A description of that course, so far as it has been carried through, is offered here, with other more or less pertinent remarks, for the thought and criticism of readers.

Although the idea of the course is not new the emphasis and the handling of material are different from the older surveys of "universal history." Consequently there is a certain joy of exploration and even of creation for the teacher. In the first of the two-year courses, with three meetings a week, the attempt is made to trace the development of life to the modern era, well past 1600. The second of the two courses will bring the story to the present. While experience

shows that Wells' "The Outline of History" does not fulfill all the requirements that one would impose, it is, nevertheless, used as a text—supplemented by the solid volumes of "orthodox" historians, none of which, however, has the really necessary point of view. Although Mr. Wells leaves the reader in no doubt as to his interesting opinions, no sensible reader is in danger of confusing them with facts. They suggest problems for students to think over, and furthermore are subject to comparison with the tacit, unexpressed opinions of the academic writers. However, when a professional historian produces a better *world history* the present writer will welcome it and urge its use.

The course is intended to meet the needs of three classes of undergraduates, roughly: those in other departments who, having had little history in school,<sup>1</sup> wish to make up the deficiency; those who come in to history courses to get something that relates in a historical way to their major subject, journalism for example; and those who as history majors wish to round out their knowledge. For the first two groups the course is in a special sense a *service course*. On the one hand such a general service course is related to similar college courses in world literature, general law or jurisprudence, and comprehensive surveys in other fields; on the other hand it is similar to the newer high school courses in general history, general science, "condensed" mathematics, etc. Certainly when such a course in world history is safely installed in the high schools, preferably in the last two years, one of the reasons for the existence of the corresponding course in the university will have gone. The other reasons will, I fancy, remain, for the course aims to do something more than re-edit high school graduates.

Of the series of exercises in the course the reading is the *pièce de resistance*. In each week a minimum of a hundred pages of reading is required. This is checked, because even the best-intentioned of students finds something else of more consequence than reading that is simply suggested. When we have a different goal for the student, the general final examination in the *subject*, perhaps, rather than examinations in the different courses, such checking may not be necessary; even at Oxford however the student has the responsibility of reporting periodically on his work to his tutor. An outline is provided which gives the weekly lists of topics, with the required reading in texts and sources, followed by extensive bibliographies from which the student ordinarily selects some material relevant to his major subject or to some other special interest. This outline also describes all special exercises, such as term papers, maps, etc.

The question of a more extensive syllabus has arisen, and indeed a very detailed and well-arranged list of topics, with the important information relative to each, would be a splendid aid in the organization of material, but it would surely tend to become an

intellectual crutch.<sup>2</sup> So far the requirement has been that each member of the course prepare his own syllabus. There are mistakes, but the information that is organized is apt to stick. The students' own summaries of material, and the notes on which they are based—whether taken from reading, lectures, or other sources—are inspected and criticised during the early part of the year. It is no small gratification to hear one perplexed student after another announce that he is beginning to see the light—and with eyes that he can claim as his very own, not the instructor's. Colleges are criticised because they "do not prepare students for anything"; here is one thing for which they can be trained,—the assimilation, organization, and control of information.

As indicated, the part of the required reading which is not in the texts is expected to relate to the student's major subject or to some other approved interest. Special attention is given to this in the bibliographies, and the world history in the library, accessible to the class, invites them to follow some one subject continuously, as well as browse.

The treatment of topics is only roughly chronological. The experimental divisions of the course follow, for the period closing with the early part of the seventeenth century. This is only an approximately accurate description of the stopping point, for it is impossible to have one's treatment of developments in all the different parts of the world come to a close in exactly the same year or even in the same decade—nor is this necessarily desirable. A few of the reading assignments are included.

1. The making of our world and the making of men.
2. Early thought—races and languages of mankind.

**Required Reading—**

Wells—Outline, chs. 11-13.

Breasted—Ancient Times, ch. 1.

**Additional References—**

Atkinson—Primal Law.

Avebury—Prehistoric Times.

(About forty other references to books and articles follow.)

- 3-4. The dawn of history—Indo-European peoples; the first civilizations (Sumeria, Babylonia, Assyria, Chaldea, Egypt, India, China and the East), Aegean peoples—early writing—early religion and government—early social organization, etc.

5. The Hebrews and their neighbors.

6. Rise and conflict of Greeks and Persians—the Medo-Persian empire—Greek conquest of the Aegean world—Greek kings, nobles, and tyrants—repulse of Persia.

- 7-8. Greek thought life—age of Pericles—Athens vs. Sparta—Spartan leadership—inter-state conflicts and prostration of the Greek world—post-Periclean culture.

**Required Reading—**

Wells—ch. 22.

Breasted—chs. 14-18.

**Source Readings—**

Bakewell—Source Book in Ancient Philosophy.

Botsford—Source Book, ch. 17.

(References to Botsford and Sihler, Fling, Thallon, and Webster.)

**Additional References—**

Abbott—Pericles, chs. 4-8, 14-18.

Blümner—The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks.

(About fifty references follow; the better texts and the larger histories are included.)

9. Alexander the Great—Philip and the rise of Macedon—Alexander—expansion and extension—"receivers" of Alexander's empire—culture of Alexandria.

10. Guatama and the rise and spread of Buddhism—India and Eastern Asia.

- 11-12. Rome and Carthage—beginnings of Rome and of early Republic—conquest of Italy—rise of Carthage and rivalry with Rome—Punic Wars and the Roman conquest of the Western Mediterranean world—world dominion and degeneracy.

13. A century of unrest and revolution—end of the republic—peace under the empire of Augustus.

14. The imperial successors of Augustus—revolution—division of the Empire—barbarian invasions and the "fall" of the Western Empire.

15. Beginnings of Christianity—Jesus of Nazareth—the first Christian foreign missionaries and the extension of Christianity—Constantine and Christianity—control by the Roman Church over the western nations.

16. Justinian: his work and his neighbors—empires and religions in Asia through the time of Mohammed to the conquests of Jengis Khan: Syria, Persia, Central Asia, India, China, Japan, etc.

17. Mohammed and Islam—conquests and the Caliphate.

- 18-19. Medieval Christendom: Papacy, monasteries, missions—Charlemagne and his empire, feudalism, conflict between Emperors and Popes—the Crusades—nature and position of the medieval church.

- 20-21. Asia and Mongol Empire of Jengis Khan and his successors—Mogul Empire in India—beginnings of European contact.

- 22-24. Rebirth of Western civilization in the Renaissance: medieval towns, business, books and culture, universities—and in the Reformation: system of Charles V, Martin Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, etc.—beginnings of the wars of religion—entrance of America into history—explorations in the Orient.

Now there is no necessary rigidity in such a distribution of material as this, and every instructor has the pleasant opportunity of organizing as he sees fit.

In the small section groups which meet once a week for a short paper and for discussion the best work of the course is done. There the instructor simply acts as moderator, and by so doing keeps in touch with the realities of the course. Naturally a very busy teacher feels that such work can be farmed out to an assistant, but in such a course unity is necessary. If a man is unable to handle all the sections each week he ought at least to arrange to take each of them once in three weeks. This applies with particular force to colleges and universities of average size; in large institutions where the graduate assistants are experienced and make a point of attending the lectures of the professor a different plan may very well be in order.

Experience indicates that instead of the present arrangement of two lectures to one hour of discussion the proper division of time should be two section meetings to one lecture. Although there is no perfectly satisfactory text in world history the basic reading which can be found to suit most of the subjects is fairly complete, and this lightens the burden placed on the lectures. In one section meeting little more can be done than the fixing of the very essentials in the mind of the class. It is important that time be secured for discussion of the merits of numerous books; it is desirable that each person doing additional reading according to his own interests be allowed an opportunity to give some expression to his thoughts beyond the brief notes made on his weekly reading card. It is good to see students finding that they can make distinctive contributions to discussion. In

the course of a year each person who seeks some continuity in the outside reading of successive weeks should have a chance to develop a classroom personality, a positive attitude toward subject matter rather than the too prevalent passive disposition. A second section meeting would contribute to this end. Moreover the questions which the members of the sections raised would, in many instances, provide a basis for practice in running down facts and finding solutions of problems, or "cases."

The two lectures as given under the present dispensation are designed to supplement the reading or to present certain material from new angles—they are supposed to be a part of the teaching offensive. Where anything can be left to the reading and discussion this is done. But the lecture has a place; it is here for example that in the early part of the year the teacher who is converted to the religion of current events and the "meaning of past history for the present" has a chance to throw lines of interest back from the present to the past and to make an attempt to secure the interest of the class, by linking up distant ages with contemporary events and problems. Even more conservative teachers can safely use such a scheme. It would seem that after the first few weeks the course itself holds interest sufficiently. Of this troublesome topic something is said subsequently.

The lectures emphasize the contributions of various races to civilization and attempt to connect the work of the course with the various major subjects and professions—art, law, medicine, etc. Organization is stressed; unless this is done the true purpose of education is ignored. Of course, a favorable case can be made out for almost any idea, as professional holy writ can always be cited. The writer feels convinced, however, that the keen interest of many students in the relation of history to the major or to the professional subject, and of these to history, is more than suggestive. It is indicative of the existence of a means of vitalizing the history curriculum in a remarkable way, a means apparently not sufficiently employed. It points to the wisdom of emphasizing the major subjects throughout the period of study; and of requiring a student to concentrate so heavily in his chosen field that if he is to do well he must go over to science and literature and what not with a "professional" purpose. Scattering for the mere necessity of "distribution" is too often a waste of time. "Getting off" this or that requirement leads nowhere. Naturally we shall use the terminology, or the demonology as some would have it, of courses, requirements, distribution, "a little of everything," and the like, until emphasis is placed on a general examination, or a progressively graded series of examinations,<sup>3</sup> which will test a student's command of his chosen *subject* in its various relations.

The first few lectures of the year deal with history in its larger, or general, aspects,<sup>4</sup> geographic features, social tendencies, the place of the artistic impulse, and similar matters. These factors are called to attention during the term, with reference to specific cases and facts. They are not forgotten on

examinations. Such a method need not degenerate into the teaching of the instructor's pet hobbies or social theories; the citation of actual events simply reminds the student that such forces operate, and it is then his business to use the "case method" from that point on, drawing his own conclusions if he draws any. Other types of lectures will be noted in the brief list included below. All a teacher can hope to do is to select suggestive topics, more or less representative.

#### Lectures of the first term:<sup>5</sup>

"History"—a series as described above.

The chief periods and the outstanding personages of history—a summary sketch.

Contributions to civilization of the various ancient peoples of the Near East.

The battles of Marathon, two worlds in conflict (just before Armistice Day).

Middle and Eastern Asia to the Christian era.

(The daily round of an Athenian.)

The successors of Alexander.

The Jew in History.

A brief sketch in one or two lectures, or on a printed sheet, outlining the various periods or phases of growth, development, and decline in the history of the world is valuable for the purpose of fixing in the minds of students the "topography" of the course, mountain peaks and valleys so to speak. This should be something definite and concise, something that can be memorized. It is less important to make sure that the class consider *all* of the essential points than that they learn well what they do consider, in order to have pegs on which to hang later details. The lectures on makers of history (one of the Scipios, for example, or the Scipio family) give a chance to the devotees of "inspiration" to achieve their purposes without doing too much damage. Indeed a draught of this kind of wine often does good.

The presentation in a lecture of some very detailed historical problem may serve as an antidote to the supposed danger of superficiality. It is not likely that a student who has been made to realize the difficulty, and the fascination, of the "mining" of information regarding the Cretan civilization, or the spread of Mithraism in the Roman empire, for example, will hold too high an opinion of his own stock of knowledge. It is here that one of a number of ways of showing what the "historical method" is presents itself. Nowadays one of the supposed advantages of "distribution" is that it gives the victim an idea of the "scientific method," the "historical method," the "feeling for literature" and so on. It is important to define what we mean. If by instruction in any particular "method" we mean the teaching of "how it has been done" then some of the ordinary courses taken in the different fields for purposes of distribution give this training; if however, we regard the doing of some constructive piece of work, however simple, as a characteristic feature of the "method" of any academic subject—with at least some attention to such matters as observation, verification, and organization—among the different elementary courses, only those in the sciences tend to bring the student very near to the goal.<sup>6</sup> But what student of science,

for example, coming into an elementary course in history—ordinarily the only kind open to him—for the purpose of working off distribution requirements ever gets more than a fleeting glance at the real historical method? In far too many instances most of his time is spent in the assimilation of some new bits of information in a limited field. Such work has merits of its own, but why do we insist that the learner is getting something which he does not get? Even the casual reading of source books is not enough. Some of the exercises assigned in world history are described. These are designed to give even the elementary student an attitude of mind and a method that are at least remotely akin to what he gets in the laboratory. The type of detailed lecture referred to above and the discussion of historical method are analogous to the experiments which the professor of chemistry gives in the course of his lectures, while the exercises performed by the students correspond in a general way to what members of an elementary course in chemistry or physics do in the laboratory. Of course, no attempt is made to create a perfect analogy, but there is a suggestion in the comparison. Before these term papers and exercises are discussed reference may be made to the objection that too much is being expected from the class, in consideration of the small number of "hours" of credit. Possibly. But experience proves that if a subject is tolerably interesting the more an instructor expects the more he gets. Nor is this the principle involved in putting the price of one's property high with the expectation of having to compromise. It is good to see signs in some quarters of a tendency to get away from the ratio of two study hours to each period spent in the classroom. Two hours should be a minimum rather than a maximum. While they are sowing, students grumble and cause the instructor to weary in well-doing, but when the harvest time comes at the end of the term there is much rejoicing over the fruits of their labor.

That the real question involved in the assignment of term papers in such a general course in history is different has been suggested. Can one hope to give in a brief year what those who are likely not to take more work in the department have a right to expect from "history"? The answer would seem to be yes. But most curriculums are not designed with this in mind. The division of the history courses into graded groups—introductory and advanced lecture courses, seminar courses of various grades with special courses for special purposes, such as the location and use of historical materials in the library, the study of current affairs, and so on—all this is useful for the history major or for some person who can take two or three courses in the department. But, since other students need similar training, certain exercises in the world history course are designed to afford it.

First, for everyone, comes the reading of one book or parts of different books, relating to a special interest, after the fashion of the weekly collateral reading. The report on the reading is a summary, with criticisms of the book drawn from the best sources and information regarding the author. Direc-

tions and notes on materials are supplied in the outline. Persons who want to do more, and there are some, are urged to read further. Such work trains the elementary student to test and appraise new volumes in a preliminary way; what is more, it fosters the reading habit, that stranger in our midst. The best of these reports can be read to the class, for some of them will be astonishingly well done. The reading of these reports is useful and informing to the instructor, frequently providing a guide to the most valuable parts of certain books that are on his "waiting list."

The assignment for another term has to do with the history of a selected region or people, from ancient times to the present, or with a particular period or movement. Again, there is training in the location and organization of materials. History majors are naturally encouraged to choose a topic to which the department devotes no special course. A short select bibliography is prepared after the student has consulted the more obvious sources of information, such as the card catalogue, the bibliographies in the various general texts, encyclopædias, co-operative histories (*e. g.*, *The Cambridge Modern History*), and similar works. Attention is paid to the form and arrangement of the bibliography. The particular references which are to be read are starred or otherwise indicated, and a simple outline of the various phases of the subject is worked out. Emphasis is placed again upon those things which relate to the major subject, to the coherent extension of the individual's own special content of knowledge. The report follows. Naturally it smacks of encyclopædias and textbooks, but it means more than that—by way of requiring observation and selection of material, verification, and organization. Occasionally new interests are aroused; for example, the reading of parts of anthologies of the literature of the country or period in which interest has been shown, means that the way is open to future private reading of an organized sort. "It is hoped that this exercise will add new meaning and permanence to the general outline of history, and that it will provide an abiding and agreeable intellectual interest." Only time will tell.

Some teachers would prefer to assign considerable quantities of biographical reading, and nowadays we are reminded that the case method, which has been taken over from law to business training, should be applied specifically to academic subjects, even in the introductory stage. The Dean of the Harvard School of Business Administration has called the attention of the President to the question of a transfer of the method to the College. It is worth thinking about. So far only advanced students in history have been able to use any system corresponding to this method. Some *problems* could be given at an early stage. This idea has perhaps been implicit in the foregoing paragraphs; the writer is inclined to believe that the first week or two of an elementary course, such as world history, might well be spent on some carefully selected and limited problem, for the solution of which the library had all the necessary materials. Examples might be suggested by the instructor's studies or by

such volumes as George's "Historical Evidence" (pp. 221-223); a good case is Hannibal's passage of the Alps. Full directions could be given. Then at different times other problems might be assigned, with increasing diversification and decreasing help, until each person could be expected to handle independently a simple problem. The teacher, who, in the regular discussions is willing to "follow the gleam" of interest which appears now and then, can provide practice for the members of his class in answering each other's questions and settling each other's difficulties. The fallacy of the reasoning of those who would have all history studied by the case method seems to be that they ignore the fact that law and business as treated in graduate schools are professional subjects, and that if the mastery of principles and method is placed at a higher premium than content the latter will surely be added in the pursuit of the different callings. Except for graduate students and, possibly, for undergraduate majors in the department, this is not true in history and in many other academic subjects. It is the needs of the average undergraduate which must be kept in mind in a world history course. History is taken by most persons for the sake of content as much as for method; perhaps it is a fair distinction that in this subject, in contrast to professional subjects, the chief concern is primarily with topics rather than with cases, in the technical sense.

Not unrelated to cases and problems is the controversial matter of current events. There are those who feel that current events have no place in history courses. Then there are those who feel that one ought to make all history (except the most advanced) hinge on current events. Again there are those who think that a separate course in current events should be offered, a course in which the study of varied and suggestive events and problems would involve sufficiently numerous "excursions" to the past to insure a proper gain, perhaps after the fashion of Driault's "Le Monde Actuel." Finally there are those who wish simply to make sure that the content of knowledge which their individual courses offer is linked up with the present in an intelligent way, the wish being conditioned by the belief that to attempt to understand the past in terms of the present is incorrect, especially if the past has not already been comprehended and judged in terms of a still earlier past. Believing that if any course should "link up," world history should, the writer experimented with weekly assignments to his sections, each time one or two members of the class being expected to present the relevant facts in the recent history of the regions under consideration during the week. Even more important than the stock of information thus made available to all members of the class was the training afforded individuals in digging out this information—in the use of such materials as the *Supplement to the Political Science Quarterly*, *Current History*, *The Manchester Guardian Weekly* (and similar publications), *Who's Who*, *The Statesman's Year Book*, *The New International Year Book*, etc. Equally effective would be the arrangement early in the year of one or two typical exercises which all members of the class

would be expected to perform, with a view to acquainting each person with the proper materials—for suggestions are often not enough. Then each month all of those in the course would be tested on the news supplied in *Current History* or in some other periodical, knowledge of the past being called for whenever it seemed to bear upon recent occurrences. Such a method, however, is applicable to all history courses, with a minimum expenditure of time. Beyond this the writer feels that it is not legitimate to go, for current events, if not attached to a fair knowledge of the past, fall away from the memory like autumn leaves from the trees.

The study of current affairs requires the use of geography, and geography suggests maps, which figure in most history courses. Early in the year this class is asked to prepare a large and comprehensive map exercise for the present world, which provides a point of departure to the past and a basis for later comparative map studies. When an able second year student enters the course with the generous idea that Egypt is a part of Asia one's zeal for geographical knowledge either is extinguished or leaps into a mighty flame. Baikal, Delhi, Angora, Tasmania, Alsace-Lorraine—these become anathema or else a religion. No doubt a student forgets much that he places on his map, but he also remembers much that is useful; what is more, he understands more easily his daily reading and comment. It is the instructor's business to see that a large number of atlases are provided and that members of the class really learn how to choose maps and how to use them. This is part of valuable training in the rapid, efficient use of the Reference Room. The present writer is inclined to emphasize Asiatic and Pacific geography, for that has been much neglected.

It is no cause for surprise that many students feel somewhat bewildered when they find themselves confronted by such a tremendous array of material as a course in world history presents; "massive," they call it. The question is, How shall they study for tests and term examinations, and how shall the examinations be regarded? Incidentally the examinations in this course are not limited to the work of the one term in which they come; the course is regarded as a year course, and each test may cover *all* the material previously considered. This represents an attempt very common in some quarters, to get away from learning by piecemeal. It is unlikely that a student who has had to review material three or four times over will fail to see some relations in history, that he will fail to master some parts of it, and that he will any longer believe in the philosophy of cram. One can have very little to say against cramming, however, if one's examination questions are not of the sort which must surely expose it. The examination is presented as an opportunity for the student to demonstrate his ability to organize material and with this end in view lists of questions for study are handed to the class during the first weeks of the year. From these the earlier tests are in large measure made up. Such exercises afford training which makes for an intelligent handling of the tasks that follow. The



comment has been made that such work is hard on the instructor, and so it is, but it enables him to say his nightly prayers without shame. And the students say theirs with more hope. Many people who can do a very good weekly quiz stumble on more comprehensive tests unless trained. They do not see that it is often literally true that the members of the class who make the highest marks are those who remember fewer facts than their fellows. The failures are frequently those who are submerged in a swamp of detail. It is a service to a student in trouble to require him to make out lists of questions of his own and to present them for the instructor's criticism. The final examination in such a course should consist not only of questions drawn up by the instructor, but also of those suggested by the class itself and by the heads of various departments whose major students are in the course. Presumably these men, and even some outsiders, are in a position to say what historical information is most worth having in their respective callings. Such co-operation is worth attempting. Some of the tests given in this course are printed here:

#### Hour Examination, First Term

- Write a fifteen minute essay on (a) or (b) or (c)—one only.
  - The temple in early civilizations.
  - Conflict between nomads and settled communities—with as many examples as possible, and mention of the economic and cultural factors involved.
  - The Jews and Babylon.
- Identify with reference to location, period, characteristics, work or significance any fifteen of the following—
 

Nabonidus	Vedas	Lydia
logographi	Shi-Hwang-ti	Seleucids
Scythians	Hyksos	Nippur
Karnak	Hittites	Pleistocene
Judaism	Hiram	Sardis
Zealots	Dorians	Titus
- Outline the situation in the different parts of the world which have been considered
  - in the year 2000 B. C.
  - in the year 1000 B. C.
- State your major subject. Indicate those facts and considerations in the material covered so far which relate definitely and closely to it.

#### Final Examination, First Term

- Write an essay on (a) or (b).
  - A comparison of Assyria in the time of Tiglath Pileser I and Greece at the time of the Peloponnesian Wars with reference to the conduct and methods of war. Indicate the relation of war to, and its effect on, the life of the state and of the individual. Give examples and definite facts.
  - An account of the life of Aristotle and of his contributions to knowledge in its various forms.
- Identify with reference to location, period, characteristics, work, or significance any twenty of the following:
 

Council of Elders	Athene	Tiglath Pileser I
Sennacherib	Plataea	Erechtheum
Delian League	Cimon	Boeotia
Aton	Hippocrates	Pythagoras
Mustapha Kemal Pasha	Emir Feisal	Aegina
Entablature	Myron	Democedes
Mesozoic	Doric Capital	Inductive and deductive methods
The Academy	Miletus	
- Answer (a) or (b).
  - Outline the situation in the ancient world in the year 400 B. C. Emphasize the position of Greece. In what important ways was the world situation different in this year from that in 480 B. C.?

- Bearing in mind all the civilization studied, give an account of the history of any one of the following: Art, literature (including the drama), science, law and social sciences (including business, politics, etc.), religion and philosophy.
- Write an account of the history and influence of Athens from the early period to about 330 B. C.

#### Hour Examination, Second Term

- Identify any ten of the following:
 

Karma	Gandhi	Dionysius of Syracuse
Magnesia	Nirvana	Ceres
Cheronea	Diocletian	Samnite Wars
Heraclea	Ebro	146 B. C.
Sentinum	Marius	plebiscitum
- Answer (a) or (b) or (c)—one only.
  - Give a sketch of the history of Roman agriculture and of the Roman agricultural class.
  - Write on the changes in the social composition of the Roman army—causes, meaning, results, etc.
  - Why and how, did the Roman Senate control the legislative and the executive branches of the government?
- The Indo-European stock and the Semitic stock, 2000 B. C.-70 A. D., a comparative outline.

#### Some Further Observations

Some persons may very well be asking, Why not call this sketch of world history, with the parallel course in world literature and thought, "The History of Civilization"? For example, at Columbia University there is a course called Contemporary Civilization, which seems to pass beyond the historical to economic and social problems of very recent times. At Stanford University three brief one-term courses, called "Problems of Citizenship," are given by the departments of economics and political science. At Reed College a broad synthetic course is being developed. Perhaps a more complete course than any of these might be worked out. For the criticism of the various persons who are thinking on this question the following scheme is submitted: a five hour one-year course in the history of (world) civilization (history, in the usual sense, literature, intellectual developments, with some parallel treatment of some social principles) to the beginning of the modern era, and a second one-year course of five or six hours bringing the formal history down to the present, as well as the survey of literature and thought, with a fairly *intensive* parallel treatment of the fundamentals of the social sciences (economics, political science, sociology, etc.). The latter elements should be closely co-ordinated and unified with the historical sections. Either of the two-year courses might be taken without the other, emphasis being placed however upon the second year's work, which might open with a brief sketch of the larger movements in the previous history of the world. A special exercise might involve the reading of some good brief sketch of the earlier period, just as the last term of the first year's survey might include the reading of a sketch of the modern era, for the purpose of completing the outline, which is what most of those enrolled in such a course insist upon. Whether this work could be given by a single person is a question, but one could well afford to spend much time in preparing to make the attempt. There is danger in division. Certainly one man, seeking plenty of counsel, ought to plan and control the course.



The second section of this complete survey would be the practical equivalent of two, and possibly, three, ordinary required courses in history, the social sciences, and literature, and one who had taken the work offered by it could be content to forget about further "distribution," with the possible exception of the required science and English composition. And the latter may be shelved some day when the schools are able to cope with the common problem, and when every college instructor is expected to regard himself as a tutor in correct English. So long as a student can isolate "English" in one classroom he is safe to talk and write as he pleases, but when he finds it shadowing him at every turn he is more likely to come to terms with it on some respectable basis.

The course in world history or in the history of civilization in the broad sense, has a particular interest for the student majoring in history. The general outline rounds out his knowledge and develops his feeling for his subject. It gives him a working command of the machinery, so to speak, and he appreciates the gain. Great gaps in his knowledge of history and related subjects disappear, without the danger of his suffering from that great handicap, the illusion of omniscience. Whether such a person should take the course in his first year depends on circumstances, but ordinarily there would seem to be no reason why it should not be completed early, since the instructor is taking nothing for granted, and since world history draws the attention to the subject rather than to "courses." This is important; it is part and parcel of the scheme of general examinations in the "field," now so much talked of, and suggests such varying expressions as "giving the best brains a chance," "education *de luxe*," "the cult of incompetence," and "education as selection." "The very plan of a general final examination, however, requires that the student shall select his course wisely, do work outside his formal courses, and by reading and reflection co-ordinate the details he has learned into a body of ordered knowledge of his subject, so far as this can be done in undergraduate years. In all this he requires guidance and stimulus." Thus the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin* states the problem. The tutorial system gives guidance; where this arrangement is beyond the means of the institution, and even where it has been installed, the course in world history or in the history of civilization has an important place as co-ordinator. Indeed the instructor in a course of the kind, if given the time that he ought to have, would be under obligation to regard himself as a tutor, who was to teach his students how to handle material and how to assimilate their knowledge. This, of course, is what instructors in introductory courses in the limited fields of European and English history try to do, theoretically at least. It is furthermore the teacher's business to show the student how he himself does some of his own work—we learn by imitation as well as by precept. Many a student, graduate as well as undergraduate, has wished that he might know how some of his professors handled their work with a minimum of lost motion.

Insofar as the course in the history of civilization

is a scheme of organized reading there is no reason why the practice of publishing this reading should not be followed more generally—this applies to many other courses also. If a list of reading included the best books, an intelligent mastery of which would mean command of the outlines of the subject, there would be no reason why the student who had "read up" these books and been examined should not be relieved of the necessity of taking the course, provided he performed some of the special exercises of a technical nature in addition. I use the word "necessity," for if there is to be a general departmental examination, written as well as oral, it ought to mean that those passing it have a fair knowledge of history in general, as well as more highly specialized knowledge in some one field. The following schedules of study, on a three term basis, show what this would amount to. They are selected from plans for such groups as majors in Ancient History, Medieval History, Modern History, Modern European History, English History, (N.) American History, Latin-American History, Asiatic-Pacific History, Social or Intellectual History, and Foreign Service (Diplomacy in particular). Obviously American History would be a part of each schedule, unless it was passed off by an anticipatory examination of the kind suggested above. This same provision might hold for a number of the other courses also.

#### *Ancient History Majors*

History of Civilization, Part I, three terms, five hours.  
History of Civilization, Part II, three terms, five or six hours.  
Ancient History, various courses, four to six terms, three hours.  
History of Art, two or three terms, three hours.  
Intellectual and Social History, two or three terms.  
Philosophy of History, or the History of History, one term.  
Historical Method, or the Teaching of History, according to the purposes of the student, one term.  
Special work on a chosen subject, two to four terms.

#### *Modern History Majors*

History of Civilization, Part I, three terms.  
Modern Europe, various fields, four or five terms.  
Latin America, one to three terms.  
Asia and the Pacific, three terms.  
Intellectual and Social History or History of Art, three terms.  
Selected branches of economic, diplomatic, or constitutional history, three or four terms.  
Historical Material, or the Teaching of History, one term.  
Special work on a chosen subject, two or three terms.  
(In lieu of certain parts of History of Civilization II courses or prescribed outside reading in literature, political science and jurisprudence, economics and sociology.)

In these schedules the course in the history of civilization by carrying such a considerable part of the load makes it possible to achieve the kind of mastery of the *field* of history alluded to above, and this without preventing a student's taking numerous other courses, in the department or out, which his fancy dictates. This is one of the precious prerogatives of the undergraduate. The term "special work" means reading and investigation, under guidance, with reference to a chosen period, movement, or problem, in all its aspects. It would require the preparation of an essay or a series of essays, the student's *own*

job. In the largest universities this sort of work is offered in the numerous highly specialized courses, but in the average institution, which is thought of in this article, the curriculum is restricted; it is only by adopting some scheme by which courses are offered in alternate years and in regular sequence that it is possible to give all of the absolutely necessary instruction.

With the value of the special work appears the wisdom of having a common seminar for majors in the department. All the instructors should attend as well. This might be held in the last term or in the last two terms of the senior year. The different senior students would "lecture" and answer questions regarding their own particular studies in different fields of history. The material presented ought ordinarily to be of value to all of those present, especially as it would be more extensive and synthetic than the papers in the usual undergraduate seminars, with which there need be no competition.

Such a heavy concentration in the subject, history or any other, implies that those who are qualified to do university work should know more or less what they are about. Perhaps there is a place for those who, not having found themselves, need a brief opportunity to allow the academic stimulus to play on their minds. It is to be hoped that the time is coming when graduates of secondary schools, in this country as in Europe, will be in possession of that which they are now spending time in acquiring at college, namely, general information, the "fundamentals." Discussion of this point, with the implications for history and for other branches, falls without the proper range of this article. It may be that ten years hence we shall find a thorough-going course in the history of civilization required in the schools. Whatever makes it possible for the secondary institutions to complete their proper work of providing a good *general* education for all, whether the future of the student is to be the law or the laundry, surgery or the sawing of two-by-fours, all this I say, is gain, and gain which need not come at the sacrifice of attention to individual abilities and aptitudes.<sup>1</sup>

There is no guarantee that even a perfect high school course would settle our fundamental educational difficulties or that it would "get across" to each student, but it is as much as the state owes to the unwilling learner. We dare not fail to heed the lesson which the so-called "workers' education" has for universities. Higher education in the future is to be a serious, as well as a pleasant, business, and not a social holiday; those who are in the academic departments of a university for cultural purposes, and not with reference to some professional course, are expected to justify their presence there by manifesting a sense of responsibility commensurate with their opportunity. The rigorous training in the mastery of a subject in all its relations to knowledge is likely to expose the frauds and the intellectual slackers or misfits. Citizens of the Republic are asked to spend money on education of a helpful kind; where there is no vision the people perish; and as we come more and more to control the future we need

to have and to heed the vision. If world history or the history of civilization helps to simplify the problem and to accelerate the coming of the better order it has a place. The B. A. degree is a historic thing, and teachers of history should be among the first to defend its honor. Otherwise we shall have to adopt the philosophy of the following quotations, eminently wise in certain respects—"The time has come when a young man should not be expected to spend four years of his life simply to top off his school days with a little extra culture and learning." College "should aid those who go there, to earn their living after graduation." "I believe this school (a graduate department training men for business careers) should be incorporated in the course for an A. B. degree and that that degree should not be required in order to enter" this school. "This changed or revised curriculum should start in the high schools and gradually unfold through the college course." The point of these fragmentary quotations is clear enough; they are taken from an article by a man with both a bachelor's degree and a doctor's degree who finished his schooling over twenty years ago. But the present writer believes that while the creation of professional undergraduate degrees, and in particular the various degrees in science, is legitimate and desirable, in consideration of the needs and aptitudes of thousands of individuals, he is equally convinced that we need some professional schools which will insist upon the B. A. as a prerequisite, in order to make sure that there will be found men to lead wisely—men who on account of ability and vision, and not because of accident or some other excuse, have devoted three or four years to the study of the unchanging things. It were a pity to see all, or even most, of those who major, let us say, in the classics going into departments of Greek and Latin as teachers; such persons are needed elsewhere, in newspaper work, for example, where they can give the public the benefit of their particular type of linguistic and literary training. All points of view are needed in the social composite of life. Were this article, or parts of it, to fall into the hands of the Oxford professors mentioned at the outset they would no doubt wonder what sort of folks American undergraduates were and what had become of all the money spent on education here. They would not realize that much of the education which they accept as the proper contribution of the home and the parents is in this country left to the school, and institutionalized. Perhaps one great function of education today is to train those who can put much of education back in the home. There a large part of it rightly belongs and there the foundation of broad thorough education should be laid. "They seldom settle down to a long spell of steady work." Americans have energy and they have brains. It has been found in one course in the history of the life of the race that this energy and these brains can be enlisted in an unusually vigorous and assiduous application to hard, steady work.

<sup>1</sup> One says "little" only in courtesy, for an investigation has showed that a large number of our students have had scarcely any history worth considering in high school or

even in the freshman year at the university, a situation not encountered, of course, by teachers in many universities.

<sup>3</sup>In reading in later life one is supplied with a bare outline in the table of contents of a book, and the rest of the burden is placed on the individual.

<sup>4</sup>"Graded" in order to give candidates an idea of what to expect; preliminary tests often give useful training in methods of study.

<sup>5</sup>A page is handed out on which are printed titles of good books on the history of history, the philosophy of history, historical method, the useful bibliographical and "reference" works, etc.

<sup>6</sup>For obvious psychological reasons the lectures follow the related work in the reading; this serves almost as an automatic checking device. Moreover the lecture can be more detailed and more thorough if a definite background

of reading can be taken for granted. One useful device for the stimulation of interest is an exercise calling for the history of the student's name or for a description of the countries from which his ancestors came. Even in the university there are some students who require such simple direct appeals to their interest.

<sup>7</sup>One occasionally wonders whether a person who has gone through the discipline involved in the mastery of any one subject in its various phases actually needs training in the methods of other subjects. Just how much difference there is between the methodology of the scientist and that of the historian and the rest is a question—apart from application to varying content, of course.

<sup>8</sup>See "Reorganization of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools" by H. F. Taggart in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for November, 1921.

## The Columbia College Course on Contemporary Civilization

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During the war, courses on war issues were given in almost all of the colleges of the country. They met with varying success, but nearly all stopped with the spring of 1919. At Columbia, in the Departments of History and Philosophy, chiefly, there grew up the conviction that a course on peace issues was quite as vitally important as a course on war issues. When the idea had been given due consideration it appeared that the departments of government and economics as well as those of history and philosophy, were interested and involved in such a course.

All four departments began in February, 1919, to work on the details of the venture. From the outset the work on the new course was controlled by two ideas: What should the eighteen-year-old college freshman know about the society in which he lives? How can we best present our material, irrespective of the vested interests or long established boundaries of the departments concerned? The first draft of the main outline was completed after six weeks' work by representatives of the departments of history, economics, government, and philosophy. The name of the course, *Introduction to Contemporary Civilization*, came slightly later. Five months were given to the preparation of the detailed syllabus, which in September of this year appeared in a third revised edition.

The purpose of the course is to stimulate informed consideration of the insistent problems of the present. These are grouped as: *Problems of imperialism and the "backward peoples," Problems of nationalism and internationalism, Problems of conservation, Industrial Problems, Problems of political control, Educational Problems*. The study of the problems comes at the end, not at the beginning of the course. Before the

students consider the problems they are given some insight into that human nature which makes and may solve the problems, are introduced to three great instruments of contemporary civilization—the concepts of democracy, applied science, and mass production for world distribution, and are instructed in the role which the nineteenth century played in setting the stage for the present. The first division of the course is called *Civilization and its basis. The world of nature and The world of human nature* are sub-heads. The second division is *The survey of the characteristics of the present age*, with the following subdivisions: *The historical background of contemporary civilization 1400-1870*, and *The recent history of the great nations, 1871 to the present*. Then come the insistent problems as outlined above. Backward and forward the course is knit together by the consideration of human nature and the complications arising from its varied expression in different geographical, historical, and scientific conditions.

The course is required of all freshmen. It meets five times a week throughout the year, in all about one hundred and fifty times. The staff of eighteen is drawn from the four departments named and from psychology. Each instructor teaches a section of thirty for the entire year. Each instructor goes beyond his own specialty, but this necessity is compensated by the wealth of outlook which he gains. Each instructor, within his own department carries on some advanced special research which balances his program of teaching and study. The course is administered by the Dean of the College and the Committee on Instruction.

The content of the course includes much of the material usually given in first courses in economics, government, ethics and European history. This fact has not led to the departmentalizing of the work of the course, which has as its object not the teaching of any one of these subjects, but the bringing of them all together to throw light on the problems of today. In the four departments the beginning courses have

<sup>1</sup> Prof. Coss is Director of the Summer Session and chairman of the group of eighteen instructors in charge of Contemporary Civilization. A *Syllabus* of detailed outlines and references, cloth bound, may be obtained from the Columbia University Press (\$1.25).—THE EDITOR.

been so reorganized as to recognize the work already done, and to build on the broad foundation of the new course.

After a two year trial the course entered its third year this fall with the support of the College staff as a whole, of its own teaching group, and of its past and present students. Student opinion is enthusiastic

and practically unanimous as to the interest and value of the course. It is not an easy course to teach, nor could an indifferent or a departmentally insistent staff give satisfactory instruction, but it is a course which seems to bring together related subjects in an effective introduction to Contemporary Civilization.

## Notes on Professional Cold Storage

BY HALFORD L. HOSKINS, TUFTS COLLEGE.

There is little need, even by way of introduction, to call particular attention to the many problems involved in the taking and preserving of professional notes and papers and to the haphazard methods long in use in this connection. Few teachers can be found who are at all satisfied with the plans for notebook work which they require of their students. Still fewer progressive instructors and research scholars exist who have been able to devise means for organizing, preserving, and at the same time having constantly accessible the heterogeneous materials needed in the conduct of their work. Most of the card index systems to be used in writing and research are quite unsatisfactory. Many new and efficient devices have been produced in recent years for business and office use, but manufacturers of such equipment have made little progress toward meeting the needs of student and educator in this respect.

These matters gave the writer no little concern when he came to discover that his college notebooks, which contained (theoretically) the quintessence of four years of college work, were without practical value, although they had been prepared with considerable care. During his first years of instruction he came to the conclusion that any educational materials, to be of permanent and practical value, must not only be so prepared that their meaning would be evident at any time, that is, after they became "cold," but that they must also be so filed that they would always be ready at hand when needed and be so organized and classified that any particular bit of information could be instantly found, without the usual disheartening delay of long and, perhaps, fruitless search. The difficulties to be overcome in devising a note taking and filing scheme which would solve the main problems without producing others equally serious seemed for a long while to be insurmountable. The often spoken complaint that there can be no wholly satisfactory filing arrangement for the student and the instructor would seem to be well founded.

Nevertheless, the writer set about some years ago to attempt to discover some method whereby a great deal of wasted time and effort due to misplaced and frequently duplicated data might be at least partially avoided and greater efficiency thereby obtained. It soon became evident that any such plan would have to serve equally well for the keeping of class notes, lecture notes, bibliographical data, outlines, excerpts, and miscellaneous papers and pamphlets of all kinds.

By dint of a great deal of experimenting, a scheme began to evolve which seemed to satisfy many of the author's requirements. This method, having been thoroughly exposed to the vagaries of a historian's needs for some time, has reached that stage in development where it may be offered, though with considerable trepidation, to a harassed and skeptical world, in the hope that it may be of some service in this or similar form.

The operation of the accompanying suggestions for the preparation and filing of notes and other materials is somewhat difficult to explain on paper since the scheme, for best results, involves the correlation of several features, which may, however, be introduced separately. A possible criticism that the plan is too elaborate and requires too much care in putting it into use may be anticipated here. In answer, it may only be said that the pains required to prepare an indexing arrangement such as the one offered is much more than compensated for by the resulting ease in filing and finding materials. This, in the long run, results in a considerable net saving of time, to say nothing of gains in personal satisfaction, if one attaches any material value to the information filed, and in any event the scheme is not as complicated as it might at first appear.

An old English recipe for rabbit pie begins by saying, "First catch your hare." In this case, the first requirement is a filing box of some size and description. The size must be determined entirely by individual needs and preference and the purpose to be served; and here it may be said that the greater the degree of uniformity in the papers and cards used, the better. It is well to note that filing cabinets and boxes are made in certain standard sizes to accommodate papers of the following dimensions: 3x5 inches, 4x6 inches, 5x8 inches, 6x9 inches, and 8½x11 inches or letter size. It is probably well in most instances to provide a file of letter size for the inevitable typewritten papers, manuscripts, professional correspondence, pamphlets, and the like, and 3x5 inches or 4x6 inches cards or slips may prove essential for bibliographical purposes.

However, the selection of one standard sized sheet for research and lecture notes, or, in the case of a student, for class notes, is a matter of prime importance; for once such a set of notes is thus prepared, it can not be easily changed or co-ordinated with pages of another size. After considerable experi-

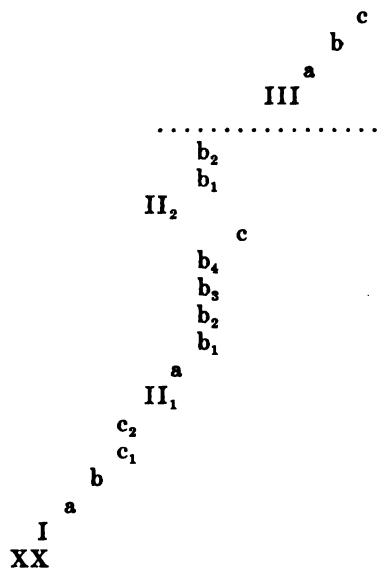
mentation, the writer believes that the 5x8 inches sheet serves more of these purposes than any other standard size. For one thing, it is large enough to hold a fairly large unit of information, either written or typed, while it may be punched or purchased to fit a standard loose-leaf notebook of very convenient size.

But the same indexing scheme may be employed in all cases where the information covers all phases of the professional work. The usual alphabetical index is utterly inadequate for the filing of professional (historical) data, reading lists, topics for term papers, selections from the sources, outlines, lecture notes, assignments, and a host of similar material. There are on the market several kinds of index tabs, in a variety of sizes and transparent colors, ready to be affixed to index cards when and where desired. In one instance, at least, tab material of this description can be obtained in four or five widths and in six-inch lengths, which may then be cut to any necessary length for use. Most of these commercial tabs are made of permanent materials, such as transparent celluloid, and so constructed as to contain or protect a small paper insert of the same size in each instance. The paper insert may be marked with any heading desired, limited, of course, by the size of tab used. For historical purposes, two or three widths and lengths of tabs may be used to advantage in the same file; smaller tabs being employed for successive subdivisions of subject matter.

The organization proposed rests first on a subject basis, and within the subject, on a quality basis. For the best advantage, both the color of the tab and its position in the file may be made significant. A single color, then, may be arbitrarily assigned to each general subject to be contained in the classification. For instance, blue may be taken to signify American History; red, English History; yellow, Methods in History, etc. Then it may be assumed that the materials relating to each of these general subjects can be roughly grouped into (1) Introductory materials (outlines, bibliographies, reading lists, assignments for work, etc.), (2) Organized (class, lecture or research) notes, and (3) Miscellaneous materials relating to the subject in hand (maps, notes taken at random and not organized, statistics, examination questions, pamphlets, etc.).

The usual order of the diagonal succession of tabs in the file is entirely ignored in this arrangement. One section of the file under each subject head is devoted to (1) introductory materials, another section to (2) organized notes, and the third to (3) miscellaneous materials; the tabs representing each successive *quality* or its subdivisions, running diagonally across the file (see illustration below). But within each section, successive tabs indicating subdivisions of the same quality heading are in all cases placed one behind the other in direct line. Thus, in the crude illustration below, XX represents the general subject tab, for, let us say, American History. The Roman numerals, I, II, and III, denote introductory, organized, and miscellaneous materials respectively. The letters a, b, c, etc., signify subdivisions in each case,

again on the basis of quality or character of materials rather than subject. For example, I-a would refer to subject or course outlines, plans of conduct, general purpose, etc.; I-b, general bibliography; I-c, miscellaneous introductory materials; II<sub>1</sub>, with a tab bearing the word "Begin," might refer to the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; II<sub>2</sub>, marked "Colon," for instance, might refer to the second main division of the organized notes for American History, the "Early English Colonization"; and so on. II<sub>1</sub>a, however, would denote detailed outlines, sectional bibliographies, etc., for the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; II<sub>1</sub>-b<sub>1</sub>, -b<sub>2</sub>, etc., would thus contain the organized notes proper for the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; while II<sub>1</sub>-c would be the location of any more or less miscellaneous materials, printed or written, bearing particularly on the period or subject-matter contained in the "Period of Colonial Beginnings," and not on the subject of American History as a whole. Similarly, III would refer to miscellaneous materials relating to the whole subject of American History, while the tabs a, b, and c, make possible any desired arrangement or sub-classification of these materials.



As a matter of fact, for the purpose of more readily distinguishing the character of the materials in the file, the color scheme can be carried further very successfully. Color may be made to signify *both* subject-matter and character of materials filed, instead of the general subject-matter alone. For this purpose, colors may again be arbitrarily assigned to materials of introductory and miscellaneous character, it being assumed that the tabs denoting organized notes and the like are to agree with the main subject tab in color. For instance, if yellow be taken to indicate anything of an introductory nature, and white anything to be considered miscellaneous, the tabs in the above tabular view would run thus (red signifying the subject of American History): XX red; I, yellow; I-a, yellow; I-b, red; I-c, white; II<sub>1</sub>, II<sub>2</sub>, etc., red; II-a, yellow; II-b<sub>1</sub>, -b<sub>2</sub>, etc., red;

II-c, white; III, white; III-a, yellow; III-b, red; III-c, white. This is quite an elaborate arrangement, to be sure! but in actual use it causes no confusion, and it will probably be found a distinct aid. If this "refinement" of the general plan is to be used, the colors chosen to indicate introductory and miscellaneous materials should be retained uniformly throughout the file, even where the general subject tabs are chosen of one or the other color, i. e., yellow or white, in the case cited.

The advantages of a system of this kind are many, and not altogether obvious. It is evident that not all of these subdivisions need be used in the construction of an index for every main subject in the file, but they are designed to provide for any contingencies which may arise and which would otherwise disarrange the entire index. In an arrangement of this kind, index cards with their tabs may be added or removed at will without impairing the operation of the scheme in any way. The organization and filing of any particular body of notes or other materials, then, may be changed at any time without necessitating the preparation of an entirely new set of index cards. These cards, once prepared, are practically permanent; changes in the typed or written tab insertions only being needed now and then, as the body of materials grouped under the general subject heading grows or changes in character. One great objection to most professional filing systems is that they tend to keep the series static and are not sufficiently mobile to promote reorganization, hence improvement, of the series. But with materials filed in a fashion similar to the one suggested, both by subject and character, a very considerable degree of flexibility, together with accessibility, is obtained.

All materials filed must needs maintain an upright position in the file. But to secure this, it is not necessary to employ stiff cards for note-taking purposes. Ordinary notebook paper can be filed with entire satisfaction; the index cards furnishing the necessary stability. The capacity of a cabinet is thus extended several times. For paper of each of the standard filing sizes there are manufactured convenient side-opening loose-leaf notebooks. If the papers and notes filed are punched to fit these, the owner is enabled to take materials from his file and place them *en masse* in the notebook for use in class or library. The index cards may also be punched and made to serve as an index to the materials in the notebook, as they do in the file.

One other suggestion may be permitted which has to do with methods in note taking. In using notebook paper of the 5x8 inches or 6x9 inches sizes, at least, it will generally be found quite worth while to have a simple form printed on one side of each sheet: for filing purposes, both sides of the sheet should never be utilized. A two-point ruled or printed horizontal line near the top of the sheet (along the longer dimension) furnishes a good base for topical headings; another and vertical line to form a margin of an inch or more on the left provides space for references, citations of authority, etc., while another

vertical line, constructing a wide margin on the right amounting to approximately one-fourth of the total width of the sheet will prove of greatest value for many kinds of work. This space may be used for remarks and comments on materials excerpted in research studies, and it frequently saves re-writing a page when lecture notes are being prepared, expanded, or revised. It may be employed for jotting down illustrations, additional details, bibliographical data, and numerous other matters amplifying the main body of notes on the page. This arrangement the writer has found of the very greatest value in adding the element of flexibility and possibility of improvement to any body of notes worth being carefully done in the first place.

With respect to the filing scheme, the plan here suggested is probably far from perfect, although the writer has found it as here briefly outlined much more satisfactory than any of the several plans tried before. Perhaps the general idea can be adapted to varying needs and purposes without sacrificing those features which most recommend it. Its chief claim to consideration lies in the ease afforded of properly placing a great variety of materials in a file which can be expanded or contracted *ad lib.*, without difficulty or confusion, and in the equal ease of locating these materials, when filed, for instant use.

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# An Experiment with Oriental History in the University High School, Eugene, Oregon

BY THORA SMITH, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

I have for some time been impressed by the general ignorance prevailing among our people in regard to the Orient and the seeming lack of any desire on their part to know more of this subject. High school students are hardly aware that there is an Orient with a great history and a well established civilization. These conditions should not, and can not for long, continue to exist. Unless we familiarize ourselves with conditions in the East, we may at some time in the near future be very suddenly and unpleasantly awakened to the fact that there is a virile race of people in the Orient who have recently become progressive and one that gives promise of becoming more powerful in the future. So it was that, with these considerations in mind, when I was given a class in the University High School and told that I might use the class for any reasonable experimental purpose, I was inclined to experiment with Oriental history. My reasons for this selection might be summed up as follows:

(1) The proximity of our Pacific Coast to the Orient.

(2) Commercial relations that necessitate a better understanding of the people and a wider knowledge of the industries of the East.

(3) The prejudice, much of which is due to ignorance, that exists among our people against the Asiatic countries or races and against Japan in particular. A study of the customs and spirit of the people, recent history of the country, and existing conditions, may tend to bring about a better feeling toward the Japanese, and strengthen the good relations that have for some time existed between that country and the United States.

(4) The inherent satisfaction that comes from the study of the Orient. The people are interesting and possess a fascinating history. Some of the Oriental countries have a wonderful civilization—rooted in remote antiquity, and although quite different from ours—worthy of respect.

(5) The political status of the nations of the Orient. The remarkable progress made by Japan in recent years shows that she is a power to be reckoned with, and the somewhat sudden awakening of China and the present political upheaval demands our attention.

The nations studied were China, Japan, and the Philippines. A little time was given to India. The chief aim was to create an interest in the Orient in the hope that the students might be inspired to give more attention to these countries in the future. We studied present conditions, the geography, chief institutions, customs of the people, the spirit of the Orient, and very briefly the main incidents of their past histories.

One difficulty was the lack of any high school text,

but since the problem project plan of teaching was to be used, this situation was of little consequence. Through the assistance of Professor Griffin, of the department of history of the University of Oregon, of the University of Oregon Library, of the Oregon State Library, and the students of the class, who were ever on the alert for current articles on the subject, we managed to get together a fair library of material. The students, who were from the start very much interested in the course, suggested that we appoint a committee to make a bibliography of interesting current articles, also of books that we found interesting and helpful. It was also suggested that we keep a scrap-book. Pupils were encouraged to bring in articles and pictures of prominent Orientals. This was to serve not only as a source of information, but as a means of creating interest and encouraging pupils to give more attention to magazines and newspapers, thus accomplishing a double purpose.

The method used in conducting this course was, as already stated, a form of the project method. We had in mind a definite purpose and some special topics we wished to develop, then set ourselves to work on them. Our program in studying the different countries may be illustrated by the following condensed outline of procedure.

## JAPAN:

(1) *Why we should study Japan.* This brought out, among other things, the prejudice against Japan, the need of better relations between that country and ours, the rank of Japan among the nations of the world, her ambitions, etc.

(2) *The geography of the country.* This topic we aimed to study thoroughly, as to location, topography, size, population, natural resources, condition of industries. A study of the geography of the country helped the pupils to understand Japan's desire to expand, her ambitions in China, and her present relations with that country.

(3) *The customs of the people and the religions of the country.* Easy to find interesting material on this topic.

(4) *National characteristics.* These (such as race solidarity, strength of family unit, reverence for the Emperor, intense patriotism, national sensitiveness, etc.), are not hard for pupils to discover. They are well outlined in Tuell's "The Study of Nations."

(5) *Education.* Present highly centralized system, extent of education, interest manifested, recent program,—all these were briefly treated.

(6) *Government.* Present form studied and compared with European nations, attitude toward democracy, etc.

(7) *History of the country.* (a) Before the coming of Perry. (b) Since the coming of Perry. We did not attempt a study of the details of past history, but



treated some of the most important incidents and made a brief chronological summary.

(8) *Japan as a world power.* Discussions on the remarkable progress of Japan in recent years, her part in the World War, benefits derived from it, her place at the peace table, her present ambitions in the Pacific.

Sometimes all the students of the class would study the same topic and be prepared to give either written or oral reports on it, as may have been designated. At other times different topics would be assigned to different divisions of the class and the students would learn from one another in oral discussions. At times, special days were given over to the students to make reports on anything they wished which bore on the subject. This gave them opportunity to report on some particular magazine articles, legend or other interesting material that they had come across in their readings. Pupils like to give in class reports on subjects about which they think the other members of the class do not know. When they prepare a report they enjoy reading it to the class. Pupils were encouraged to read Oriental legends which portray the spirit of the Orient and the soul of its people, besides imparting knowledge in regard to the history of the country and the native customs.

Some books and magazines that the students were particularly interested in, and made use of in giving their special reports, are: "Japan in History, Folklore and Art," by W. C. Griffis; "Things Japanese," by Basil Hall Chamberlain; "Japanese Girls and Women," by Alice M. Bacon; "Stories from Chinese History," by A. S. Roe; "Mitford's Tales of Old Japan," "The Symbolism of Mythology in Relation to Japanese Art," by Alexander F. Otto and Theo. S. Holbrook; "When I was a Boy in China"; "Chinese Wonder Stories"; "The National Geographic Magazine"; and "Stories of Marco Polo."

In addition to the literary contributions, pupils brought to class Oriental objects of interest. We had at various times, such things as Oriental hand embroidery, chopsticks, Chinese newspapers, Japanese bibles, Japanese letters, Chinese and Japanese costumes of different designs were exhibited, all of which helped to maintain interest. A strong factor in making the work real, in securing adequate imagery and impressions and increasing and maintaining interest, was the showing of slides on the Orient, of illustrations in good books of art, of pictures in the "National Geographic Magazine"; of portraits of prominent Orientals given in the newspapers and in such magazines as "Asia."

Studying the subject as they did, by problem, the project plan, gathering material from different sources, it was not necessary to have recitations daily. On some days the whole period would be given over to supervised study. Certain other days were set aside for reports on specified subjects. These were followed by periods given over to general review, testing, and a brief summary. As previously indicated, there were still other days on which the students were allowed to make reports on pertinent subjects which they considered interesting. In these they were

allowed a great deal of leeway. We had reports from newspaper articles, Chinese and Japanese legends, mythical stories of creation, etc. These brought about class room discussions which developed judgment and led to historical-mindedness. In order that the pupils might not be confused by the discussions and that they might get the essentials, when we had completed a subject, we made a systematic summary of the work covered and this the pupils put into their notebooks.

Now, it may be asked, what conclusions may be drawn from the experiment. Should Oriental history be taught in high school? The curriculum is overcrowded now, some will say. There has been steadily growing a strong opinion in recent years that some of the history now taught in the high school should be eliminated, that much of the rest should be reduced and that more attention ought to be paid to the other social sciences such as sociology, economics, community civics, etc. Much is to be said for these proposed changes. But when I recall how well that class enjoyed the subject, how much they were interested in it, how little they knew about the Orient before taking the subject, and believing as I do that the Mongolian race is far from a decadent one, that China and Japan give promise in the future of becoming more powerful among the nations of the world, I am of the opinion that we should in the larger high schools, especially of the Pacific Coast, give the pupils an opportunity to obtain some insight into the conditions and problems of the Orient that the prevailing ignorance may not continue. If it does not seem possible to arrange a separate course in Oriental history, it might be well to have some chapters dealing with Asia taught in connection with European history courses. While the latter method is not the preferable one, it is certain that Asiatic history could be taught in connection with some phase of European history, *e. g.*, with Alexander's expedition into Asia; with the coming of the Mongol hordes into Europe under the leadership of Jenghiz Khan; then again with the stories of Marco Polo and other early European explorations. If the history of Asia is well taught and pupils become interested in it, they can cover with ease in the same length of time much more than they ordinarily do. In my opinion teachers of history might well give this plan some thought.

Following is a bibliography of books that were accessible to students and teacher. In addition to this, we also had among our collection a large number of magazines.

#### HISTORY

*Latourette.*—"The Development of China" and "The Development of Japan."—Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Almost every one who is interested in the history of Japan and China is familiar with these books. "The Development of Japan" gives a narrative account of the history up to the time of Perry, followed by chapters on the civilization of Old Japan, the period of transformation, and Japan as a world power. These books are not beyond the comprehension of high

school students and we found them valuable as reference books.

*Clement.*—"A Handbook of Modern Japan." A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

This book was found to be very helpful. The chapters are brief and to the point and it contains bibliographies on each subject. Contents are as follows: The People, Houses, Dress, Manners, Customs, Religion, The History of Old Japan, Education, Constitutional Imperialism, and Twentieth Century Japan.

*Giles, Herbert A.*—"The Civilization of China."—Henry Holt & Co. Good, very readable and interesting. Students like it.

*Ross, E. A.*—"The Changing Chinese." Very good in the hands of the teacher.

*Barrows, David P.*—"A History of the Philippines." Discusses conditions of Filipino before coming of Spaniard, dealing with the race, different tribes, culture; The Spaniard in the Philippines; the taking over the Philippines by the U. S.

*W. E. Griffiths.*—"Japan in History, Folklore and Art."—Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Very well adapted to needs of high school students. We found this little book very good and it was much used by the students.

*Gowen.*—"Outline History of China."—Sherman, French & Co.

Gives an account of the rule of the different dynasties. His explanation of the meaning of different Chinese words and combinations of words commonly used should be helpful to the teacher.

*Hart.*—"The Obvious Orient."—D. Appleton Co., New York.

A good book for the teacher to read. Dwells upon the thought that it is Japan's ambition to be the civilizer of Eastern Asia.

*Douglas, R. K.*—"Europe and the Far East. 1506-1912."

Gives an account of the early intercourse between East and West. Not adapted to students of high school age—hard for them to read.

*Kat Suro Hara.*—"An Introduction to History of Japan" (date, 1920). Geo. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, Pub. Yamato Society Publication.

Note: Judging from the list given above, it will readily be seen that not many of the histories available are adapted to high school use.

#### A GENERAL LIST OF BOOKS

*Bacon, Alice M.*—"Japanese Girls and Women." This book gives a good idea of the domestic life of the Japanese, a good picture of the women and girls in the homes, their education, etc., and is interesting to both girls and boys of the high school.

*Chamberlain, Basil Hall.*—"Things Japanese." A very valuable little book. The manner in which the topics are treated appeals to high school students, as well as to grown-ups. Among topics, which are arranged in alphabetical order, are: Japanese People, Japanese Opposites to Us, Moral Maxims, Topsy Turvydom, History and Mythology, Treaties With Foreign Powers, notes on various subjects connected with Japan, etc.

*Amori & Kochi.*—"Diaries of Court Ladies of Old Japan," 1920. Houghton, Mifflin Co. This is a very attractive book consisting of diaries, written about the year 1000 (just recently brought together and put in book form). From them we get a glimpse into the history of that time, showing the enormous influence of the Chinese. The book contains some beautiful illustrations. Introduction by Amy Lowell.

*Nitobe, Inase.* Of University of Tokio—"Bushido, the Soul of Japan."

Gives an account of the deeds of the Samurai during the feudal age, their devotion to duty, loyalty and honor. Since it is from that class that most of the leaders today are drawn, the book helps to understand many of the customs that prevail in Japan today and the strength of Japanese leadership.

*Porter, Wm. N.*—"A Hundred Verses of Old Japan."—Clarendon Press, Oxford.

*Dewey, John.*—"Letters from China and Japan."—E. P. Dutton & Co. These letters, written so recently by John Dewey and his wife from China and from Japan, need no recommendation, other than their authorship.

*C. L. Brownell.*—"The Heart of Japan."—Methuen & Co., London. Found in most of the public libraries, I think; interesting to high school students.

*Lathrop.*—"When I was a Boy in China."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

*Lathrop.*—"When I was a Boy in Japan."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

*Van Bergen.*—"A Boy of Old Japan."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

The last three mentioned are liked by younger students, and while somewhat out of date, give good ideas of customs of the people.

#### GEOGRAPHICAL READERS

*Carpenter.*—"Carpenter's Geographical Reader of Asia."—American Book Co.

*Huntington, Ellsworth.*—"Asia, A Geographical Reader."—Rand, McNally & Co.

*Chamberlain, Jas. F.*—"Oceania."—The Macmillan Co.

#### BOOKS THAT DEAL WITH THE ART OF JAPAN AND CHINA

Note: These books are listed, not from the viewpoint of the artist, but because of the historical interest created through use of the illustrations and the stories connected with them.

*Fenellosa, Ernest F.*—"Epochs of Chinese and Japanese Art." These books contain many illustrations and copies of interesting prints. Fenellosa spent a large part of his life in Japan and, perhaps more than any other man, saved to Japan old Japanese art when it was about to slip away because of the wholesale adoption of Western customs.

*Otto & Holbrook.*—"The Symbolisms of Mythology in Relation to Japanese Art." Accompanying the pictures this book gives the stories showing the significance of many of the subjects of Japanese art, e. g., the stories of Sakura or the Cherry Tree, Feng Hwong or the Ho Wo Bird, Amaterasu or the Sun Goddess, Bronze Lotus Leaf, Tatsu the Dragon,

Fusiyama, etc. These little stories, simply told, satisfy the curiosity of students to know the significance of pictures they so often see.

*Audsley, Go. A.*—"Keramic Art of Japan." Contains many illustrations that students enjoy.

*Ferguson.*—"Outlines of Chinese Art." University of Chicago Press. Semmon Lectures. Art Institute of Chicago.

#### FAIRY AND MYTHICAL STORIES

*Mitford, Freeman.*—"Tales of Old Japan." A book of Japanese legends, historical stories, Japanese sermons, fairy tales, all of which do much to portray the spirit of Old Japan. Many of these translated stories are preceded by an explanatory introduction which is helpful, not only to a better understanding of the story, but in giving general information.

*Pitman, Norman Hinsdale.*—"Chinese Wonder Book."—E. P. Dutton & Co.

Very attractive book; children like it. A good book

to have in children's libraries.

*A. S. Roe.*—"Stories from Chinese History."—Fred A. Stokes & Co.

Contains mythical and hero stories that are connected with Chinese history; elementary, but older children enjoy it.

*Chamberlain, Basil Hall.*—"Things Japanese." Book discussed above. Good.

*Griffis.*—"Japan in History, Folklore and Art." Also discussed above.

(Note)—Since writing this article I have received a "Syllabus on Japan," by Kenneth Scott Latourette, and just recently published under the auspices of the Japan Society, Inc. Mr. Latourette, in his preface, gives some good reasons why we should study Japan; and in order that the information be unbiased advises laying the foundation for knowledge of the Orient in the class rooms of high schools and colleges as we are now doing for that of Europe. Anyone interested in the study of Japan would find this Syllabus very helpful.

## Objectives and Methods in History

FRANCES N. AHL, M.A., EUREKA HIGH SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA

The ultimate goal of education in a democracy is "to develop in each individual the knowledge, interest, ideas, habits and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society to ever nobler ends."

With this as the definition of education each subject in the curriculum must answer the question: Why do I exist? What justifies me in my insistence on a place in the educational program for the youth of America?

How does the subject of history answer this question? How does it contribute towards the end of social efficiency? How does it justify its demands for a place in the high school curriculum?

History, I believe, because of the very nature of its content affords peculiar opportunity for the training of the individual as a member of society. It should accomplish this end through the development of the appreciation of the nature and the laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups and the intelligence and will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being.<sup>1</sup>

History is "the science of men in their activities as social beings" or, simpler still, it is the life development of men; it portrays society's development in all phases—social, economic, political, religious, educational and cultural. It conveys to the people of today a knowledge of the past which information is of value in interpreting the present and anticipating the future. As Professor James Harvey Robinson says: "It is most essential that we should understand our own times; we can only do so through history and it is the obvious duty of the historian to meet this, his chief obligation."<sup>2</sup> Professor Harding in his discussion of what the World War should do for our history methods never spoke more truly than

when he said: "The war should enforce the old lesson just as the biologist and medical scientist invoke the aid of embryology and etiology in dealing with their problems, so the citizen and statesman need the aid of history in dealing with the practical problems of society. Almost none of the questions involved in the present war is capable of intelligent discussion save in the light of history—the war should teach us all to think internationally—and the history teacher without lessening the emphasis on our national ideals and duties must perform his part in helping to educate the rising generation to a sense of world citizenship."<sup>3</sup>

The dependence of today on yesterday appears in all things. Man himself, as Emerson puts it, is explicable by nothing save the past. What memory is to the individual, history is to the race. Hence a guiding motive in the teaching of history must be the interpretation of the present. Of course, history alone will not solve the problems of the twentieth century, but it will, when properly interpreted, give an understanding of them and such an understanding is necessary for solution of these problems. How can we solve the present Oriental questions unless we as a nation and as individuals first understand these problems? And how can we understand these problems without history? Why then in any history course teach of Admiral Perry and the treaty that opened Japan to American trade as an isolated fact? Why not trace the relations between Japan and the United States from that time until the Washington Conference and interpret the present problems? Why not make history vital? Why not tell that while Japan has been drawing nearer to us geographically until finally she was given mandate over the former German islands of the Pacific and established between the Philippines and our potential naval base at Guam, we through our annexations of Alaska, Hawaii, the

Philippines and the island of Guam have been reaching out across the Pacific to meet her? In fact, ever since we acquired Hawaii in 1898 there has been tense conflict for the mastery of the Pacific, a conflict which has apparently culminated with the decision of the Peace Conference, for previously Japan's annexations of territory and extensions of influence were not of such significance to us save in so far as Japan's expanding "spheres of influence" on the Asiatic mainland brought her in conflict with our doctrine of the "open door" in China. Now Japan is expanding in Eastern Asia, Hawaii and our own Pacific Coast. Her interests in Siberia conflict sharply with our international policies; her aggression in China, through her "Twenty-one Demands," menace our treaty rights in China and China's political integrity; her demand for control of the German cable station on the island of Yap and the granting of her wish by the League of Nations has disturbed our administration; while her enormous influx to the Hawaiian Islands and her lesser immigration into the Pacific Coast States has resulted in the present crisis. Why not fit history to the present day and its problems? For as Professor Dewey has said, "The past just as past is no longer our affair. If it were wholly gone and done with, there would be only one reasonable attitude towards it. Let the dead bury their dead. But the knowledge of the past is the key to the understanding of the present."<sup>4</sup>

But shall we wait until the student reaches the Modern or the American History course before we teach him of the Oriental situation? I believe that in Ancient History a few lessons, at least, should be given to each of the Oriental states in order that the young student has a fitting preparation for the study of modern life of those states. Where is our sphere of interest today?—in the Pacific. This recent shifting of interests from Europe to Asia, bears witness to the necessity for Far Eastern as well as Near Eastern and European History in our present course. History must take into account the sum total of human achievement—China, Japan, India, Indo-China and Siberia included. Of course, our present textbooks do not furnish the material; but no real history teacher is dependent upon a text. If adequately equipped, she does not need or desire a ready-made, stereotyped outline such as the text provides. No text is able to give an adequate treatment of all of the most important topics but deals primarily in generalizations and statements that require further reading and explanations. Furthermore the text is concerned first of all with the subject not the pupils, while the teacher must bear in mind not merely aims and methods of teaching history but aims and methods of teaching history to boys and girls—to pupils of varying capacities and in different surroundings, she must remember she is teaching in a public school system for "all the children of all the people." She will prefer to make her own outline and it will be continually in the making. She will be constantly evolving it to fit both the needs of the community and the vital problems of the day. She

will be constantly asking herself: What is there in this lesson for the pupils of my class on the basis of their capacities and needs and the demands of today? What is most necessary for them to know of the past in order to be as intelligent, efficient and happy as possible in the life they are likely to lead and the work they are likely to do? And she will ever bear in mind that "The most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of the common men and common things. Education has not been wont until recently to reckon seriously with the common man who must do common things. Our so-called standard works on history deal at length with kings and popes, with courtiers and statesmen, with wars waged for territory and thrones, with laws passed by princes and parliaments. But these matters form only a very small part of History."<sup>5</sup>

For the Oriental problems such books as Latourette, Kenneth Scott, *The Development of Japan*, Macmillan Co., and Ching, Sih-Gung, *Modern China*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, furnish excellent material. The special China and Japan issues of *The Literary Digest*<sup>6</sup> are invaluable. *The National Geographic Magazine*<sup>7</sup> has from time to time given splendid articles and abundant pictures on all of the Oriental countries. I have experimented—largely through assigned readings in magazines and visualizing material used with a projection lantern—with this problem in my Ancient History classes this year and the experiment has been most successful. All of the students have been extremely enthusiastic and eager to learn more of the Oriental nations and have given splendid co-operation by bringing in valuable pictures, newspaper and magazine material. They have begun, at least, to realize that America is a world nation, that the World War made them internationalists, and that as such they must take full cognizance of all the peoples of the civilized world and that they must understand the ideals, institutions, customs, motives and feelings of the Oriental peoples.

In each history course the teacher should endeavor to link up every series of historic events with the present. How much more tangible the study of ancient or medieval architecture, for example, is to the students, when the influence of that architecture is seen in the present! When students begin to recognize the Doric, Ionic or Corinthian columns wherever seen, or the influence of those columns, their history has a vital meaning. And so it is with every phase of the work. Why leave off the history of Egypt with the facts related in the textbooks? The story of Egypt must include a survey of the present unrest in Egypt and in the light of the past and knowledge of the present the boys and girls will come to an understanding of the situation. Why teach the Treaty of Verdun merely as a step in the disruption of Charlemagne's Empire? Why not trace its significance through history? Why not see how it marked the approximate boundaries of three modern states—France, Italy and Germany and how the struggle over Alsace originated? Why not compare the

boundaries of the Western Europe as effected by the Treaty of Versailles and those effected by the Treaty of 843 and through the light of the past understand the Western Europe of the present?

"One of the fundamental criteria for judging good history teaching," says Professor Tryon, "is the opportunity given the pupils during the progress of their work to do concrete and objective thinking. By noting comparisons and contrasts in past and present-day life, by seeing the beginning in the past of our present-day institutions and customs, by the constant illumination of the past by means of the present and *vice versa*, the students are afforded much opportunity for concrete and objective thinking—something greatly needed because of the abstract nature of so much of the material with which the students work."<sup>8</sup>

I do not believe in a "prescribed" day for the study of current events, but I look to the recent books, magazines and newspapers as affording valuable material for bringing our history down to the present; and I urge that the present be studied with the past to show the vital bearing of today on yesterday.

Again, the study of history involves not only facts but processes as well. It is impossible for students to understand what history really is unless they know how it is developed, unless they work on real problems in historical investigation—problems that require them to gather, classify, and criticize, at least in an elementary way historical materials. This should be a fundamental aim in the teaching of all history: the inculcation of historical-mindedness—the mental

attitude of the historian in his search for truth—the attitude which recognizes things as becoming, which sees in the past and present continuity, growth, evolution.

When knowledge is reorganized around a practical life center non-essentials are eliminated, self-activity and initiative are developed, interest and effort are aroused, independent thinking is stimulated, the students learn to compare, evaluate, understand and conclude, to look behind the printed page for the human motive that prompted the act. "Life is a process of solving problems and if history is to assist in the solution of life's problems, it must be taught in such a way as to give training in solving them. Since people in the past met and solved problems just as people today are meeting and solving them, it is the best sort of preparation for solving life's problems to go through the process of discovering how people in the past solved theirs."<sup>9</sup> Sometimes it is well to state the entire lesson as a problem; or again, the problem furnishes an excellent means of review or a valuable topic for debate. "Doing"—as McMurray emphasizes it—is the keynote in this method of teaching.<sup>10</sup>

I believe a real effort should be made to develop the power of our boys and girls to imagine. This is not only essential to interest from the power it gives pupils to realize that after all history is not a mere accumulation of disjointed facts and useless dates as too many textbooks and teachers present it but the continuous story of real flesh-and-blood people not so very different from the people of today; but also

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imagination is necessary for the happiness and advancement of the individual student and the race for "an unimaginative people is an unprogressive people." I ask my students in Ancient History, for instance, to reconstruct the life of prehistoric man; to relate in the first person when I helped to build the pyramids; when I attended the Olympic games or Gladiatorial contests; when I consulted the Oracle at Delphi; when I went with Hannibal into Italy; when I led an invasion of the Northmen: or sometimes I ask them to imagine themselves back in the Feudal Age and to relate their experiences as they approach a Feudal castle and go through it. Sometimes we hold Athenian Assemblies or imagine we are an Athenian jury. Such exercises tax the imagination and historical information as well for they require the students to call up all the knowledge of their collateral reading and they furnish an atmosphere for the history in question. Sometimes, by way of variety, I have my freshmen classes play "guess games" with the Greek sculptors and writers or the Renaissance artists or the types of architecture. They tell all they know about the writer selected without mentioning his name or they describe the main characteristics of the Byzantine, Romanesque or Gothic architecture and cite the best examples of this particular type while the other students listen eagerly and vie with one another to see who will be first to "guess the game." This device is sometimes valuable to check up a class after talks with the projection lantern have been given on the Greek sculptors and writers, the Renaissance artists, or the types of medieval architecture.

If we history teachers are going to keep our students alert and mentally active we must constantly strive for an element of variety in our methods; the unexpected serves as a real purpose in rendering the class work interesting and lively. "The teacher who falls into a routine of method, varying it but little, will soon cease to be a person (pedagogically speaking) and become a machine. Method and personality in teaching are not antagonists but allies and the common foe of both is mechanism. One of the worst foes to the development of the teacher's personality is her tendency to depend upon the textbook for the organization and interpretation of the lesson instead of formulating her own aim and organizing the available material accordingly."<sup>11</sup>

Much more illustrative material than is used in the average history class should be employed. I have visited history classes where pictures are never used or referred to—not because they are not available—where references are seldom given to charts, diagrams and maps. Yet these are the things that make history real, these are the things that make it vital. Illustrative material carefully selected and of various types is indispensable to the same teaching of history, without it history becomes a mere humdrum subject of little, if any, interest and of less value. Some realize that we cannot separate history and geography, that "The theater of events is a necessary part of their reality. It is in many cases the cause that produces them. Man makes his physical environment.

The story of his life is in any case inseparable from his physical environment. Geography describes this environment. It must, in describing it, include the works of man. History without geography and geography without history are alike unthinkable—European experience seems to indicate that the place to emphasize the geographical background of history is in the history course."<sup>12</sup> Is it not just as true that we cannot separate history and the pictures that explain it is we make our teaching what it should be?

Again I know "history teachers," and they are altogether too numerous, who slavishly follow the textbook chapter by chapter, page by page, and paragraph by paragraph, who ask questions on the text, not the subject, and expect the words of the text as given on "Page 57, paragraph 2," or "Page 111." When these teachers assign collateral reading it is in terms of pages, not topics, and as a result when their bewildered students look for the page references they have no idea of the topic to be considered, let alone the general content of the reference. They are reading "Channing Page 110-120," or "West Page 211-225," or "Myers Page 15-27." Collateral reading should be assigned not by pages, but by topics and assignments should be made not to other textbooks but to the best detailed works of the period. The teacher should make her assignments with a definite and specific purpose in mind and her purpose should never be merely to impose a task of reading so many "pages," but to suggest the best references that the students may become acquainted with them, that they will realize history is not within the covers of a book, and above all so that they will get a broader and better understanding of the period. I find it advisable to give out typewritten sheets of suggestive references that are available in the school and the city library whenever we enter a new field of study such as the Northmen in Europe, or the Medieval Church or the Renaissance and the Reformation. Then I often go a step further, particularly in the weaker sections, and suggest references especially good on the life of the Northmen, the place of the Northmen in European History, or the organization of the Church, or the real meaning of the Renaissance. I include in these lists books of mythology, references to historical novels and historical poetry for I am ever reminded of the fact that the teacher must create the illusion and the realization of past days and dead heroes; that myths, historical novels and poetry amplify and complete the accounts and inculcate an imaginative atmosphere.

Interest and enjoyment must be sought in our teaching of history but interest as a means, not an end. The teacher must literally be "on fire" with enthusiasm in her subject and her message, full of zeal of a well-controlled but vital interest in history and in her boys and girls, and she will arouse a like response from her class. And unless the students are enthusiastic and really enjoy their history how can this subject influence them for good? How long will the students continue to read history—past, present or future—after the actual class work is ended? Hence we must strive to cultivate lasting

intellectual tastes. This can only be done by making history a real joy and pleasure; by getting away from the old textbook method of political history, "made up of a bore of dates that refuse to stay memorized, and names triple-plated against imagination and as hard to connect with real life as it is to believe that mummies in a museum ever breathed and walked;"<sup>13</sup> by putting more emphasis upon the economic, social and scientific factors in human development; by striving to make it all real; by each teacher formulating her own aims and adjusting her methods to fit her own boys and girls—methods that have plenty of variety that include project work, outlines, themes, maps, collateral reading, visualizing material; methods that will tax the imagination and thinking that will show the relation and significance of events, that will teach history as a continuous story; in a word, aims and methods that purpose to teach history to the present generation by giving such a complete and reliable picture of the past that it will be able to arrive at an intelligent comprehension of how and why the present state of civilization came to be. Then, and only then, will history contribute its fullest measure towards the

end of social efficiency; then and only then will it justify its demands for a place in the High School curriculum.

<sup>13</sup> Report of the Committee on Social Studies of N. E. A. (1916).

<sup>14</sup> Robinson, J. H. *The New History*. P. 80 (note).

<sup>15</sup> *The Historical Outlook*, April 1919, P. 189.

<sup>16</sup> Dewey, J. *Democracy and Education*.

Chap. XVI, *The Significance of Geography and History*, treats of history and geography as complementary subjects and relates history to the present social, economic and industrial life.

<sup>17</sup> Robinson, J. H. *The New History*.

<sup>18</sup> *The Literary Digest*, Jan. 7, 1922, Special Japan Number; Jan. 21, 1922, Special China Number.

<sup>19</sup> *The National Geographic Magazine*. Mar. 1912, and Mar. 1922, Indo-China; Nov. 1920, China; Nov. 1912, and May 1921, Siberia; Nov. 1921, India; July 1921, Japan.

<sup>20</sup> Tryon, R. M. *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*. P. 200.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid.* P. 84-85.

<sup>22</sup> McMurray, *Special Method in History*.

<sup>23</sup> Foster, H. H. *Principles of Teaching in Secondary Education*. P. 46.

<sup>24</sup> Johnson, H. *The Teaching of History*. P. 394-397.

<sup>25</sup> Nicolay, *Our Nation in the Building*, quoted in the *Nation*, Vol. 104, Feb. 15, 1917. P. 195.

## What Shall We Seek From a History Project<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The essence of a project is a purpose. In history a variety of projects are possible. There might be so mild and inactive a purpose as merely to read for the story. For the most part our schools reject this as not strenuous enough for regular school time. Appreciably higher would be the purpose to understand any given event and relate it intelligently as effect and cause. This is probably what we have naïvely expected from our traditional textbook study of history. This, however, has not often been a project for the pupils, since as a rule the teacher alone has supplied the purpose. A more spectacular project, valuable if not too frequent, is a dramatic representation of some historic event. The appeal of this to many is very strong, and much good can be derived from it. For myself, I am still inclined to count as perhaps the most valuable history project of all, especially for the more advanced grades, the purpose to solve some problem located in a historic setting. This should be not the sole type of history project, but it should probably be for older pupils the most frequent. Two other types quite valuable and in danger of being overlooked as projects are, first, the purpose to organize for effective grasping and recall a period of history or a point of view, and second,

the purpose to fix in memory for future use the organization so made. I say these are in danger of being overlooked as projects. This is, I surmise, because we have so long set them as tasks, especially the last, that we have almost come to believe that pupils cannot or will not purpose them. The difficulty of securing such purposes must be admitted, but I for one totally deny the impossibility.

To fix ideas let us suppose a purpose of the problem type. A class purposes to answer the question: What did Mr. Hughes wish to get out of the Washington Conference and why?

What in general is the advantage of having the pupils feel the purpose to answer this problem? What difference does purposing make? The answer seems to me threefold. In the degree that the pupils do feel this purpose, in like degree are three desirable results more likely. First, they will work harder and will therefore more likely succeed in the efforts to answer the questions. Second, having a definite aim, they will have something by which to guide their search and to try their findings. This should mean better organization for attack and better organization of results. In particular the pupils are more likely to think abundantly by way of connecting one element in the problem with its possible related elements. This may mean a very valuable mapping of a field of enquiry. Third, the interest felt in the endeavor makes for the better learning of what is done. Methods of attack, sources of information, connections

<sup>1</sup> All rights reserved by the author. Reprinted from *School and Home*, March, 1922 (Published by the Parents and Teachers Association of the Ethical Culture School, New York City).



in thought, meanings seen, and conclusions reached, will be the better fixed for use in the student's mind and character. Having been learned in practical attack, they will be retained in readiness for practical application, and not as mere storehouse lumber useful only for examination purposes. To these three may be added a fourth, which is developed below, that besides the subject matter which is learned pertaining to this particular topic, there should have been made developments toward important allied attitudes and capabilities.

Let us now proceed to a consideration of the question asked in the title of this article. What does the intelligent teacher seek by way of outcomes from this history project? I cannot pretend to exhaust the list, but the following seem to me fairly indicated as the desired and probable results from a reasonably assiduous attempt to solve the problem:

1. That the pupils shall learn better how to attack such a problem; how to analyze it, how to find and use sources; how to organize material so found to the solution of the problem at hand.
2. That the pupils shall learn better how to think in such a field; how to judge their thinking, how to weigh evidence, and the like.
3. That they shall learn a considerable amount of the history, politics, and geography relating to the problems under discussion. This alone is what the traditional teacher seems to seek.
4. That the pupils shall grow in such desirable traits as open-mindedness, tolerance of others' views, belief that opinions should be based on study and regulated by the results of study.
5. That they make progress towards certain valuable social concepts, ideals, and attitudes;—as the "open door," national honor, orderly processes of

settling international disputes (instead of war), acceptance of our country's responsibility in international affairs, and the like.

6. That they shall develop interest in such matters as belong to the project at hand, in its wider as well as in its more specific aspects.

7. That they shall build such valuable personal attitudes as a reasoned self-confidence in working at such matters.

8. That they improve in such social virtues as courtesy, co-operation with others, and the like.

9. That they build a greater respect for interest and achievement in such intellectual and moral enquiries and endeavors.

Adequately to comment on this list would unduly extend this article, but I cannot forbear to point out that every time a class engages in such an activity or even its sham and counterfeit, the pupils do inevitably change themselves for better or for worse under each of the heads named. They either improve or deteriorate in methods of attack or they become more firmly fixed in their customary methods. They either increase or decrease in openmindedness or become more firmly fixed in their customary attitude in this trait. And so with all the others. We as teachers may refuse to think of these attendant learnings. We may if we wish fix our eyes exclusively on a certain list of facts of history counted to be essential to the educated person, and work for them only. But we cannot in this ostrich-like fashion escape the ineluctable fact that our pupils are none the less and all the time learning well or ill these other things. This manifold duty must be faced and consciously met. For my own part I believe that a regime of purposeful activity is the only way in which we can discharge this inevitable responsibility.

## An Experiment in Practical Civics

BY SARA G. O'BRIEN, HIGH SCHOOL, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

We have read much in our educational journals concerning the efforts made to function the curriculum of the public schools to the needs of the average American citizen. Vocational subjects have been added to the academic programs. Technical schools have been established in our large cities. Money so spent has been considered a splendid investment as it enables many boys and girls to leave school equipped for the business of earning a livelihood. We heartily endorse this phase of work accomplished by our educational system and realize that there is need for more intensive work in the line of technical training.

Yet we venture to touch upon another subject, which within the last decade or two has begun to attract national attention in our educational circles, viz: training for citizenship. It is not given to all to become carpenters, dressmakers, or milliners, but in our great republic all are called upon to take an active part in citizenship.

American citizens have taken for granted all the great privileges which are theirs by right of birth, but have given little heed to their parallel duties. This indifference of the public has been reflected in the *laissez faire* attitude assumed toward civics teachings in our public schools.

A girl does not learn to be a dressmaker by looking at a finished gown, or by reading a description of the same in a fashion magazine, neither does a pupil learn to be a citizen by reading over the Constitution of the United States, or the Charter of his home city, or by visiting the city council, or by learning the names of every public official in his city or state. The pupil will learn citizenship by being an active citizen during his school life.

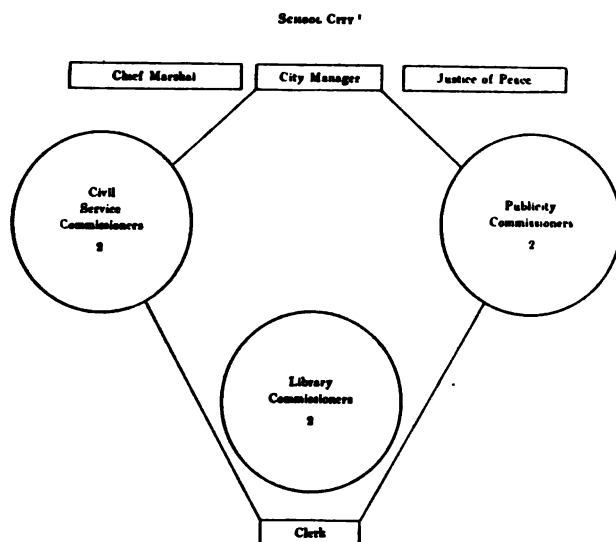
The solid foundation for permanent and effective democratic government rests on the right civic habits of all the people. These habits, if acquired at all, must be gained in the formative period of life, during

school days. The last two decades have seen a splendid new civics awakening in the minds of our educators. Great stress is now being put on the social science studies with the view of making our public schools respond to the practical needs of the community.

The writer is a staunch advocate of the fundamental educational principle of Froebel, "We learn by doing," and therefore she has devised a working scheme for live civics in her classes based upon important local, national, and international issues. The course is given in the eleventh grade in our High School and is a combination of American History, Geography, Civics, and Current Events. We have an excellent library connected with our school which contains the best and varied references on all phases of American history and government.

The work in geography is effectively done by the use of the McKinley series of outline maps. The current topics are selected from all the standard magazines, and most trustworthy newspapers. The recitation period is fifty-five minutes long. Three days of the week are devoted to textbook work or reports and discussions on collateral reading, or in the making of maps, visualizing the history lesson. One period each week is devoted to selecting and preparing the current topics, and the remaining period is given over to the oral reports on, and free discussion of, the topics.

The five sections in this course form what we call the Junior American Patriotic League. Each section is a school city. The writer will now submit the diagram of the form of school city government, followed by a description of the preparation made by one of the sections for a current topic meeting and the minutes of one of the meetings.



<sup>1</sup> The officers in the rectangles are elected by the citizens. The Commissioners are appointed by City Manager.

## SCHOOL CITY CHARTER

### ARTICLE 1.

#### *Name, Object, Territory, Citizens, Powers.*

Section 1. The name of this School City shall be the Junior American Patriotic League.

Section 2. The object of this School City is to foster student democracy and to train citizens in the correct practices of justice, kindness, economy, efficiency and of co-operating for every good purpose, in school, at home, and everywhere.

Section 3. The territory of this School City shall be Room B-15.

Section 4. Citizenship. Everyone who is a pupil in Room B-15 shall be a citizen of this School City, and may be elected to office.

Section 5. Powers. The School City shall have the right to make and to enforce laws.

### ARTICLE 2.

#### *Rights and Duties*

Section 1. Rights. Citizens shall have the right to nominate and elect officers.

Section 2. Duties. It is the duty of the city to protect the rights of all citizens, and promote the general welfare, and of the citizen to be obedient to every lawful authority.<sup>2</sup>

### ARTICLE 3.

#### *Officers, Nominations, Elections, Terms*

Section 1. There shall be a City Manager to see that the laws are obeyed, a Justice of Peace to decide all cases, three groups of commissioners, viz., civil service, library and publicity, all appointed by the City Manager.

Section 2. There shall be a Chief Marshal, City Clerk, and other officers that the city may deem necessary, to be elected by the citizens, or appointed by the City Manager.

Section 3. Term. The term of office shall be two weeks.

Section 4. An officer shall not be re-elected to serve more than two full terms in succession.

### ARTICLE 4.

#### *Amendments*

Section 1. This charter may be amended by a three-fourths ( $\frac{3}{4}$ ) vote of the members voting at a meeting called for that purpose, provided that notice of the voting shall have been given at least three (3) school days before said election shall be held.

### ARTICLE 5.

#### *Duties of the City Manager*

A. The City Manager shall preside at all meetings.

B. He shall at every meeting, call for the minutes of the last meeting, from the clerk.

C. He shall put before the class any topic for discussion that is of interest to the majority.

D. He shall call for current event topics from those who have been assigned such.

E. He shall call for a report from the three commissioners if it is deemed necessary.

F. The power of appointing or dismissing the different commissions shall be vested in him.

<sup>2</sup> The suggestions for Articles I and II of the School City Charter are taken from Wilson L. Gill's, *A New Citizenship*.

G. In case of his necessary absence the clerk will preside over the meeting.

#### ARTICLE 6.

##### *Duties of the City Clerk*

A. The City Clerk shall each day take the roll and record all cases of absence or tardiness.

B. In case of the absence of the City Manager the City Clerk shall preside over the meeting.

C. At each meeting the City Clerk shall read the minutes of the meeting preceding.

D. The clerk shall give a list of the pupils who are to give topics or tell about pictures to the Library Commissioners. These lists are to be arranged so that all can take part in exercises.

E. In case of the absence of the City Clerk, the City Marshal shall preside.

#### ARTICLE 7.

##### *Duties of the Justice of Peace*

A. To issue warrants for arrests.

B. To fix the date for trial.

C. To try all cases brought to his attention.

D. To render the sentence and fix the fees.

#### ARTICLE 8.

##### *Duties of the City Marshal*

A. To serve warrants issued by the Justice of Peace.

B. To bring the person before the Justice on the day of his trial.

C. To keep order during the trial.

#### ARTICLE 9.

##### *Duties of the Library Commissioners*

A. Library Commissioners shall each month post a list of references on the bulletin board of B-15 concerning the month's work. These references shall be available in the library.

B. Library Commissioners shall distribute current topics found in the current magazines and papers in B-15 to the pupils whose names appear on the lists made out by the City Clerk.

#### ARTICLE 10.

##### *Duties of the Civil Service Commissioners*

A. To care for and distribute all maps belonging to the members of their respective classes.

B. To hang up all pictures and editorials of interest.

#### ARTICLE 11.

##### *Duties of the Publicity Commissioners*

A. On the day assigned for current topics they shall report on all pictures and cartoons, and explain them to the class.

B. The Publicity Commissioners may appoint certain members of the class to explain certain designated pictures or cartoons.

C. When it seems advisable the Publicity Commissioners will write articles for the "Optimist," or other periodicals, stating the events and doings of the Junior American Patriotic League.

#### ARTICLE 12.

##### *Ratification*

This charter having been granted by the teacher and ratified by the unanimous vote of the citizens, takes effect immediately.

Teacher.....

Date .....

All current topic sections of the Junior American Patriotic League decided to devote the week following Armistice Day to the study of the Washington Conference on Limitation of Armament.

Therefore the sections assembled at their respective recitation periods for the purpose of selecting topics and pictures for the report recitation.

The Clerk handed the Library Commissioners the list of pupils who were to prepare special reports, articles dealing with various phases of the Washington Conference were chosen by the Library Commissioners from the following magazines, viz., *The Literary Digest* of November 12, the *Review of Reviews* and *Current History* of November; Rotogavures from the picture section of the *New York Times*, and *Washington Star* were selected.

The time allotted for each report is from three to five minutes. All members of all sections are to be prepared on the general subject chosen each week so as to contribute some item of interest or ask some intelligent question.

Five topics were assigned for special preparation and two groups of pictures.

The minutes of the meetings of one section which will now be submitted will show the nature of the topics given. The kind of pictures described and the general discussion by pupils.

#### MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF SECTION TWO OF OUR SCHOOL CITY, HELD IN ROOM B-15, ON FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1921.

The meeting was called to order at five minutes past nine by the City Manager, Gladys Smith. The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved. The first speaker called on was Robert Pierce, who gave a report on "Former Conferences that failed and succeeded." He found the material for his report in the *Literary Digest* of November twelve and the *Independent* of November fifth. This report was made very interesting by contributions from other members of the section. Edna Worden added valuable information which she had gained by some research work on Peace Conference attempted between the "Truce of God" of the middle Ages and the peace movements of the nineteenth century. She discussed the aims of Congresses called by (1) George Podiebrad, King of Bohemia in 1462; (2) the Permanent Congress of Nations proposed by Emeric DeLavoix in 1628, and (3) the Project of Perpetual Peace called in 1712 by Abbe de Pierré. The question was raised by a member of the section "Why hope for so much from this conference when so many similar ones have failed?" In the general discussion which followed Esther Burnham said:

"Our government called this conference prompted by unselfish motives." "The whole world is war weary and America's part in the World War has created great faith in America's ability to deal justly with the international problems," was added by Gladys Clark. "The Personnel of the Arms Conference," from the November *Current History*, was given by Hester Eppens. She discussed the leading characteristics of Hughes, Balfour, Kato, Briand, and

Wellington Koo. Virginia Hendrickson then showed rotogavures from the picture sections of the *Washington Star* and the *New York Times* of the exterior and interior views of the Continental Memorial Hall and the Pan-Building where the sessions of the Conference are being held. She described the architecture of the latter, the beauty of its typical Latin-American Patio, the fountain designed by Gertrude Vanderbilt Whitney, the Aztec figures pictured in the tiled floors, its grand stairways, and the Hall of the Americans. Franz Coe told of the Continental Memorial Hall and its small but beautiful auditorium, which seats only one thousand persons. Secretary Hughes' opening address to the Conference, which was delivered at the Continental Memorial Hall, was

outlined by Edna Snyder. She described his proposed Naval Holiday and sweeping reductions in capital ships. Helen Burnam discussed the article which Arthur W. Dunn contributed to the November *Review of Reviews*, "America at the Washington Conference."

Jennie Kircher then explained the "Problems of the Conference," from the article in the *Literary Digest* of November twelve. The questions of the Pacific Problems she outlined clearly by using the map which the *Digest* submitted with the article. A general discussion of the problems stated in her topic followed and Richard Frost was asking about the "Open Door Policy" when the ten o'clock gong struck and the meeting adjourned.

MARY ANN SMITH, Clerk.

## Student Participation in History of Today

CONTRIBUTED BY AN AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS CLASS OF THE MILWAUKEE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

This experiment of which the following is a report had as its basis the problem: To what extent can a class in American History and Civics influence public opinion? This problem was developed and worked out as a project in the form of an Armistice Day program by a class in American History and Civics at the Normal School of Milwaukee.

The actual experiment with subsequent developments came as a result of intensive study and discussion of the theory of the project-problem method of teaching. Subjecting the theory to its practical application was recognized as a final test. The approach of Armistice Day with the event of the convening of the Conference on the Limitations of Armament offered unprecedented opportunity. Several days of open discussion at which time individual thoughts, ideas and opinions were expressed and debated culminated in the decision that the class would depict the Washington conference on Armistice Day, presenting it as a project to fourteen hundred students in the school auditorium. The plan was big, necessitating as it did that it be perfected in the course of three weeks by twenty-four students, girls. The difficulties involved are immediately obvious. The question as to who should actually represent the characters incidental to the dramatization was eliminated by the class decision that the co-operation of the men students of the school should be enlisted. Organization into committees followed as the next definite step. Each committee assumed entire and exclusive responsibility for one of the nations involved; this responsibility including the writing of the speech of that nation, the choosing of the men qualified to depict the characters of the particular delegation, and incidental relating details. This important part of the general scheme implied that current papers, magazines, comments, speeches, every possible authoritative source be read and noted carefully for the purpose of securing insights and views as to the probable procedure of the nations involved.

As may be anticipated, the plan assumed almost colossal dimensions, developing as it progressed unforeseen complexities and additions becoming, finally, three fold in part.

A second outgrowth followed immediately, suggested directly by Mr. Will Irwin's profoundly impressive speech on "The Next War." Under the direction of chosen committees, a campaign of two minute speeches on disarmament to the student body of the school, covering a space of ten successive days, the speakers being representative students and faculty members, was launched and carried to successful conclusion as a fitting prelude to the program proper. The two minute talks had this immediate effect—a resolution favoring disarmament was voted by the student body and sent to President Harding on the day of the meeting of the conference delegates. Furthermore, eight other Normal Schools of the state were requested to co-operate in influencing public opinion on this question.

So expansive and extensive became the one time simple unadorned idea that it is almost impossible to trace its course with any degree of coherence and unity. The class resolved itself into various sub-committees such as committee on programs, publicity and decorations, the actual work being thus divided. To one of these committees is due the addition of a second and third scenes to the original one scene contemplated, the second scene taking the form of a working scene depicting the conference delegates at work with secretaries and stenographers, the third scene speculating on the ideal conclusion of the conference. The two minute prayer at eleven o'clock was likewise observed.

At this point the program was thought to be completed, but it was unanimously approved that special honor be publicly paid the service men of the school. A tree planting ceremony participated in by all the members of the school resulted. This included the marching of the service men in military formation,

the planting of the elm, a dedicatory speech by one of the service men, and a response by the president of the school, this ceremony preceding the conference reproduction.

We would be pleased to know whether this experiment is fairly representative of the project method. We feel that its values to us are innumerable, although many of these values are intangible. To what extent we influenced public opinion on disarmament is difficult for us to estimate but we feel confident that this influence was far-reaching.

This project-problem throughout its development was characterized by the significant feature of the "new education," that the centre of gravity is the class, not the instructor. This is attested by the fact that all concrete, fundamental, suggestions such as the dramatization itself, the two minute speech campaign, the enlistment of the co-operation of eight other normal schools, and finally the submitting of this article as a conclusion were initiated and realized by the class itself working co-operatively upon its own initiative.

CATHERINE O'GRADY,  
Chairman of Committee on Report.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,  
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Introduction to the Science of Sociology.* By Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess. University of Chicago Press, 1921. 1040 pp. \$4.50.

*Trade Unionism and Labor Problems, Second Series.* Edited by John R. Commons. Ginn & Company, Boston, 1921.

Professors Park and Burgess have prepared their volume of readings through a period of years, during which they have carefully tested it in mimeographed form with college classes, and the result is a college textbook in sociology which is the best of its type. The volume may well serve an entirely different purpose, supplying a collection of material of the greatest value to the busy high school teacher struggling with the new courses in "social science" and "problems of democracy." Its scores of extracts, varying in length from 200 to 3000 words, are drawn from scholars and thinkers representative of a wide range of opinion and point of view. These are carefully classified in thirteen chapters under such headings as "Human Nature," "Society and the Group," "Social Interaction," "Social Forces," "Social Control," "Collective Behavior," and "Progress." In these chapters a uniform plan of treatment is followed, which may be illustrated by Chapter XIV, "Progress." First, there is an introduction of twelve pages discussing the concept of progress and its history, the nature of the social problem, and the classification of materials; second, a body of "Materials," thirty-five pages of extracts from Spencer, Comte, Hobhouse, Ward, Dewey, Balfour, Galton, Sumner, Bryce, Bergson, and others; third,

three pages of "Investigations and Problems," six pages of bibliography, lists of topics for written themes and of questions for discussion. Chapter I treats in 60 pages of "Sociology and the Social Sciences." There is a full table of contents, a general index, and an index of names. This volume, like several earlier ones in the same series such as Marshall's "Readings in Industrial Society" and Hamilton's "Current Economic Problems," is a compilation of great value to the high school teacher of the "social subjects."

Professor Commons' volume is made up of forty articles varying in length from six to forty pages and grouped in five parts, devoted respectively to Security, The Labor Market, Labor Management, Labor Unions and The Law. Intended as a college textbook, somewhat on the plan of the case group method in law schools, this volume also is a particularly useful one for high school teachers of the "social subjects." It brings together in one volume articles dealing with accident compensation, social insurance and health programs, unemployment, scientific management, systems of payment, profit sharing, apprenticeship, shop committees, minimum wage laws, tendencies in trade union development, the transition in judicial decisions from the old legal abstractions and individualism to a growing recognition of the new industrial conditions, collective bargaining before the Supreme Court, and so on. It is the latest addition to the series including Ripley's "Trusts, Pools and Corporations" and Wolfe's "Readings in Social Problems."

*A School History of the United States.* By Nathaniel Wright Stephenson and Martha Tucker Stephenson. Ginn & Company, Boston, 1921. 544 pp. \$1.60.

This latest addition to the list of grammar school texts purposes to apply the problem method to "a school course in American history, truly nationalized, both in matter and in method." The effort to organize the story under interpretative heads is praiseworthy. Part I treats of "The Establishment of a Free Country" and Part II, of "The Building of a Great Power," Part I being subdivided under the headings "How Europeans Came to America," "How the English Founded a Nation," "How the British Empire Broke in Two," and "How the New Republic Became a Prosperous Country." The subdivisions in Part II are problems of equal interest. The problem idea is not consistently sustained and the review questions at the ends of the chapters need careful selection by the teachers.

The clear leaning toward that uncompromising variety of nationalism known as chauvinism rather than the broad-minded, discriminating kind which is wholesome in its influence, is regrettable. Any American textbook of 1921 will treat sympathetically the Allied cause and American participation in the World War, but in this text the accounts of the German-American relations prior to 1914 and of the foreign policies of the Great Powers and international politics down to 1914, are misleading and unhistorical.

The proportions of the book follow some of the

better tendencies of the time: 133 pages are allotted to the United States as a World Power; the explorers are treated with brevity; emphasis is placed on the growth of the West and its marked influence upon the evolution of democratic ideals and industrial development is stressed. The treatment of the wars, however, gives too much attention to military events and too little to great associated movements, except in case of the War of 1812. The Revolutionary War is better treated than in the older texts. The extent to which the course of events in America was influenced by Europe during the period 1789-1816 is greatly underestimated.

Mechanically, the book is well produced. The pictures are well used though some of them are fanciful sketches.

MARION Q. CLARK.

Cleveland Heights (Ohio) Schools.

*Community Life and Civic Problems.* By Howard Copeland Hill. Ginn & Company, New York, 1922. pp. xx, 528, xxxiii.

Mr. Hill is head of the department of social science in the University of Chicago high school. Here and in similar schools in different parts of the country the material of this book was used and tested for three years in mimeograph form. In the light of criticism received from those who were, during this time, using the material, the defects which were discoverable have been eliminated. The product of this painstaking and thorough work is a text of remarkable completeness and balance, freeing the reviewer from the ungracious task of adverse criticism.

The material has been carefully analyzed in the table of contents so that the inexperienced teacher can easily arrive at the vertebrae of the course. In the treatment of topics the author has sought to adjust his work, in the light of practical experience, to the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, thus promoting the very much needed tendency toward unanimity among the devotees of the social studies.

The book is meant for the younger high school pupils. Therefore the two hundred or more carefully selected illustrations are of practical pedagogical value, successfully showing the community in action. There are almost none of the stereotyped and usually meaningless pictures of buildings or of persons. Of similar excellence are the pedagogical helps at the end of the chapters such as the "Questions and Problems," "Topics for Compositions" (for use when English and social studies are being correlated), "Readings for Pupils," and "Readings for Teachers."

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College.

*Greater Roumania.* Clarke, Charles Upson. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1922. 477 pp. \$3.50.

This book is a well-balanced combination of the geographical, political, racial, economic, social, artistic, literary, linguistic, and personal. There are five chapters on the geographical and economic; the land, the Danube, the mountains, the products and

the resources; four about Bukovina, Bessarabia, Transylvania, and the Banat; and four concerning Roumania's intervention in the World War. Two of the succeeding chapters deal with the Roumanian campaign against Bela Kun and Hungary, one with the Peace Conference, four with Roumanian art, architecture, peasant life, language and literature; one describes audiences with the king and queen, another sketches *Some Notables of Bucharest*, two reveal the work of the American Relief and of the American Red Cross in Rumania, one deals with agrarian legislation; and lastly, two chapters discuss Roumanian conditions today, external and internal. The reader notes the well annotated though brief bibliography and the very usable index, the excellent maps (which however would be more excellent if better colored), and the fourteen interesting illustrations.

The author is pro-Roumanian, but at least he gives answers to many of the accusations leveled against Roumania during the last few years and the reader undoubtedly feels less ready to criticize her. While the book is not without errors and exaggerations—for example, that Roumania makes "of all the Succession States . . . the deepest and most dramatic appeal to our sympathies and our co-operation" (p. 453)—yet it does not give the impression of studied unfairness. Some official documents, such as treaties, enhance its value. Works of real value on Roumania in English are not common; probably more satisfaction and less disappointment can be gained from this book than from any other one book.

A. I. ANDREWS.

Tufts College.

*Economic History of the United States.* By Thurman W. Van Metre. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1921. 672 pp. \$3.00.

Professor Van Metre's account of the economic development of the United States follows the well-beaten path marked out by earlier works on the same subject. After a brief survey of the economic life of the colonial period and the reactions of British colonial policy upon colonial industry and commerce, the author traces the early struggle of the new nation to establish its economic independence of Europe. Then follow chapters on the inauguration of the American System; the great westward expansion and its economic significance; the development of large scale production in the period following the Civil War; the growth of industrial combinations and the efforts at governmental regulation; the growth of the consciousness and power of labor with the resulting struggle between organized labor and organized capital. The volume closes with an account of the significant economic effects of the World War upon the United States.

The story is well told but is quite conventional. The author presents no fresh point of view and appears to have missed entirely those deeper and subtler reactions of economics upon the political and social life of America. Adequate consideration of Professor Beard's two books on the *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution* and *The Economic*

*Foundations of Jefferson Democracy*, and of Professor Schlesinger's *Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution*, might have added much to the value of the book.

NELSON P. MEAD.

College of the City of New York.

*An Economic History of Rome to the End of the Republic.* By Tenney Frank. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1920. 810 pp. \$2.50.

In this important addition to the growing list of economic histories the author has presented the results of a thorough and critical study of literary and archaeological remains, coins, and inscriptions, and he has personally examined on the ground the soils, agricultural methods, and quarries of today. In no other book has there been brought together such a body of information and it has been critically tested and sifted. Professor Frank shows that in early Latium there was a denser population and a more intensive cultivation of soil, and that the early commercial relations of Etruria and Rome were more important, than we have hitherto supposed. His chapters on industry are especially important and enlightening and he includes valuable discussions of agriculture, commerce, coinage, capital, the laborer, and social classes. The work is one of permanent value and it is to be hoped that the author will publish a similar study of the Roman Empire, treating the conditions of the Mediterranean world and the exceedingly interesting problems of the tragic decay that began in the third century and culminated in the collapse of ancient civilization.

*New Masters of The Baltic.* By Arthur Ruhl. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1921. 239 pp. \$4.00.

This book reclaims from oblivion one of those many unfamiliar areas suddenly thrown into high relief upon the map of Europe by the Great War.

The author has not attempted a serious study of the history of the new Baltic republics, but has produced a rather popular and journalistic account. He has aimed to "trace the main steps in the transition period" of Finland, Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania from dependence to independence, covering their separation from Russia, the rise to power of their native majorities, and the ensuing recognition of their freedom. Moreover, he limits his method to that of an eye-witness, giving detailed descriptions of the people and their local scenes.

Both its omissions and inclusions fulfil the avowed aim of the book. The lack of anything but the briefest interpolations of historical background, of study into the causes of the social revolutions, of bibliography and index, definitely exclude it from that class of concise historical treatise (such as Orvis' Poland) dealing with recent nationalist issues. On the other hand, its vivid accounts of the revolutions in action, the clear-cut portraits of their dominant lead-

ers, the charming and accurate pictures of eighteenth century feudal life, replete with every aristocratic tradition, as lived in the twentieth century by the Balt Barons, and the unusual opportunities for close personal observation, place the book in the better-class group of travellers' records.

Mr. Ruhl has contributed the fullest account, so far, in English, to a field of recent history wherein only the scantiest material exists. In focussing popular attention upon this territory, he has prepared the way for a more detailed historical treatment of an increasingly important section.

MARY EVELYN TOWNSEND.

Teaches College, Columbia University.

*Primitive Society.* By Robert H. Lowie. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1920. 463 pp. \$3.00.

The lack of a general manual representative of present day knowledge and opinion in the field of anthropology has been especially unfortunate for the workers in related fields, such as social history and sociology, Professor Lowie has in part supplied this need, and almost the only complaint to make about his very important volume is that its title is too promising, for the book neglects such subjects as religion, magic, folklore, art, and moral notions, and confines itself (as the author frankly announces in his Introduction) to social organization—marriage and the family, the sib, property, associations, rank, government, justice.

The work combines thorough scholarship, critical alertness, and independent thinking with a lucid style and a particularly objective treatment. Always the concrete cases are cited to illustrate the problems and issues or to justify the generalization, and this method is used even in the summary of conclusions in the final chapter. The pioneer contribution of Morgan's *Ancient Society* is recognized but as a present day authority he is compared to a pre-Darwinian naturalist. Prof. Lowie deals ruthlessly with many popular sociological myths, for example the theory of the "matriarchate," the idea that polygamy is necessarily a sign of feminine inferiority and regarded as a degradation by women, the belief that primitive woman was invariably the drudge, or that turbulence and violence were common in primitive society.

The student in this field is peculiarly in danger of pitfalls of reasoning, not only because of the intrusion of prejudices but of the excessive difficulty of escaping sufficiently from his modern mental attitudes and habits to gain some understanding of those of primitive men. Over and over again in this book we are shown how unwarranted inferences have been drawn in the past, and how surprising, to us, the real facts may be. The crude assumptions of the theory of unilinear evolution are effectively destroyed, and we are shown the multiplicity, variety, complexity, and intricacy of early social institutions and relations. Like recent anthropological studies in other fields, it offers no support to culture epoch theories. There is a bibliography and a good index.



*Freedom of Speech.* By Zechariah Chafee, Jr. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1920. 431 pp.

In this volume a professor of law in Harvard University has set himself the important task of surveying historically and legally the whole question of civil liberty with which the country had to wrestle during the Great War and the post-war period. The general legal issues involved are discussed in the opening chapter, followed by accounts and discussions of Federal and state laws and their application by the courts, including legislation against sedition and anarchy, the deportations, the expulsion of socialists from legislative bodies, and freedom and initiative in the schools. Appendices provide a classified bibliography, index of cases under the Federal Espionage Acts, Text of the Espionage Act of 1918, list of state statutes affecting freedom of speech, and other material, and there is an index of cases and a general index.

Regardless of one's opinion about the path the country followed during these years, the subject is one of prime importance, and it is extremely fortunate that so competent and able an authority has undertaken a task of such difficulty and one demanding courage as well as skill and learning. But just those readers who are most sympathetic with Mr. Chafee's strong feeling against the repressive policies are likely to regret his too-frequently polemical attitude, without which his solid and thorough scholarship, legal acumen, and able reasoning would have been all the more impressive. The book stands alone, and no teacher of the social subjects can afford to miss reading it.

## Book Notes

Professor Ferdinand Schevill's *Political History of Modern Europe* is one of the best of the old style manuals of political history, scholarly, clear and readable, its text supplemented by maps, genealogical tables and bibliographies. In a new edition (Harcourt and Brace, New York, 1921; 662 pp.; \$2.50), the concluding chapter of the 1907 volume, "On the Threshold of the New Century," is replaced by a new chapter on "The Characteristics of European Civilization at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century," in which science and the Industrial Revolution, democracy, nationalism and imperialism are the subjects of suggestive but regrettably brief comment. Then follow chapters on "European Diplomatic Relations from 1871 to 1914 and the Outbreak of the Great War," and "The War and the Peace," which are devoted in the main to a good sketch of the rival imperialisms of the period told with a conscientious effort to be objective and impartial.

*General Robert E. Lee After Appomattox*, edited by Professor Franklin K. Riley, is devoted to the career as a college president of the great Confederate leader. In connection with the Semi-Centennial Memorial of Washington and Lee University the

Trustees arranged for the collection of facts and reminiscences about Lee's connection with the institution, appealing to all the "Lee Alumni" still living. The volume naturally contains a good deal of mere eulogy and is handicapped by the delay of half of a century in collecting the material. While it does not modify the accepted estimate of Lee's character and career, it does confirm and picture again the rare nobility of character and splendid spirit in which he met the terrible problems confronting the South and himself personally in 1865, and it gives some idea of the methods by which he made a remarkable record of achievement in his brief five years as a college president. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922; 250 pp.; \$2.50.)

Professor W. T. Morgan's *English Political Parties and Leaders in the Reign of Queen Anne, 1702 to 1710*, won the Herbert Adams Prize for 1919. It is the product of the study of many manuscripts and printed sources in the archives of England and Holland, reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, numerous pamphlets of the period and other primary material, and is a successful attempt to rewrite the history of this eight years' period in the light of new evidence that has become available during the past quarter of a century. New information about events and new estimates of some of the leading characters are effectively presented. (Yale University Press, 1920; 426 pp.)

*Days of the Discoverers*, by L. Lamprey, presents a group of thrilling tales of adventure so entertainingly told that the reader almost smells the salt breezes and sees the wide uncultivated wastes of the new land. Junior high school pupils would read it with pleasure and the elementary school teacher may obtain from it an atmosphere that will help to enliven the stories of Spanish, French, English, and Norse adventure. Unfortunately, not so much can be said

### What others say:

"Thank you very much for the copy of your very excellent pamphlet 'The World Remapped.' It came to me yesterday and I have gone through it with a great deal of interest. I have only the highest praise for it. It is admirably planned and so far as I have been able to test it, thoroughly accurate and up to-date. You are to be congratulated on this excellent piece of work."

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for its historical accuracy, and like the historical novel, it is a book which it would be safer to read after acquaintance with more scholarly accounts of the period. John Smith's tales of Turkish adventure are accepted without question; Verrazanno enters Chesapeake Bay, but not New York Harbor, and Americus Vesputius is all that John Fiske represents him. The characters are highly idealized. The teacher who would like to use the book for its vivid pictures of adventure should carefully read the critical account in the first volume of Channing's *History of the United States*. (F. A. Stokes & Co., New York. \$2.50.) O. B.

The director of junior high school grades and citizenship in Rochester, New York, Mr. Charles E. Finch, has prepared *Everyday Civics* for children of adolescent age. Beginning with a very brief chapter on the organization of the school as a community, he passes to some regulation community civics material, but gives far less attention to the problems of the community and of economic and social life than do most of the writers in this field. About half of the book is more nearly akin to "civil government" than to what is now being offered generally to eighth and ninth grade pupils. The tone is patriotic in the conventional sense. (American Book Co., New York, 1921. 326 pp.) D. E.

*The Citizen and the Republic*, by James A. Woodburn and Thomas F. Moran (Longmans, Green, 1921; 424, xlv, pp.), is a more extensive revision of the earlier text of the same name than a first glance at the contents would indicate, and the new form is fully up to date in matters of fact. The chapters and chapter headings remain the same except for the addition of a chapter on Taxation. The commonplace pictures remain.

In *Profits, Wages, and Prices* (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1920, 256 pp., \$2.00), Professor David Friday attacks the difficult and controversial problems of distribution of wealth in the light of war and post-war conditions. Quoting extensively from official statistics, he holds that the war did indeed lead to immense increase of profits, which have declined however since 1917 despite rising prices, because of high taxes and more costly and less efficient labor; and that of the "enormous war profits" not over a fourth or fifth "was actually spent by the stockholders," the remainder going "for taxes, for loans to finance the war, and to furnish the funds for industrial expansion." High prices in America he attributes to extraordinary war demands rather than to inflation of currency and credit. The excess profits tax is vigorously defended, with a denial that it promotes high prices. "The source of higher real wages must be found in production and not in redistribution of the product of industry" (p. 236). The book gives a useful collection of figures and a shrewd and stimulating analysis.

A. S. Turberville's *Medieval Heresy and the Inquisition* is a brief and popular account divided evenly between the story of the heresies and that of the Inquisition. The author has used the works of Lea and later writers and not a few of the contemporary

sources, and he writes with a scrupulous effort to be objective and fair and in most entertaining style. Despite some statements that are open to question the narrative is on the whole trustworthy. Bibliography of 10 pages and index. (London, 1920; New York, Dutton, 1921; 264 pp., \$4.00).

Dr. Isaiah Bowman, Director of the American Geographical Society, has undertaken the ambitious project of providing in one volume a comprehensive survey of the conditions and problems, as they affect international relations, of *The New World* that is the product of the Great War. (World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y., 1921; 682 pp., \$6.00). "Problems in Political Geography" is the subtitle, and the 34 chapters deal with every part of the earth. More than two hundred maps are as important as the text, and there are 65 illustrations from photographs. At some points the historical allusions and ventures into prophecy are open to criticism, but in the main it is a work of first rate scholarship, bringing together an immense amount of classified information that is nowhere else available in such convenient form. Teachers and classes will find it of great value in such fields as modern history, geography, international relations, and current events.

*Modern Social Movements* (H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1921; 260 pp.), prepared by Savel Zimand under the auspices of the Bureau of Industrial Research, provides "descriptive summaries" and bibliographies on trade unionism, the co-operative movement, national industrial councils, the Plumb plan, the single tax, socialism, guild socialism, syndicalism, Bolshevism, and anarchism. Dr. Charles A. Beard contributes a short introduction in which he vouches for Mr. Zimand's competence. The bibliographies, which make up the larger part of the work, are extensive, up to date, and give full details and sometimes annotations for the titles quoted, though inevitably there are some important omissions and some questionable classifications. Many of the definitions of terms are so vague as to be valueless, but the summaries of fact are helpful. It is a very useful little volume for students and teachers working in these fields.

Professor Malcolm Keir's *Manufacturing Industries in America*, though written for the business man, is a decidedly useful volume for the teacher of industrial history, economics, or economic geography. The first chapter gives a brief sketch of the resources of the United States in relation to business opportunity, the second an admirable summary of the development of manufacturing, the third discusses the localization of industry, and the fourth "The Unappreciated Tin-Peddler." Except for a concluding chapter on tendencies the remaining two-thirds of the book is devoted to certain great industries—iron and steel, cotton, wool, leather, shoes, paper, and others. It is a book that might be very profitably used for collateral reading in colleges and high schools. (Ronald Press Co., New York, 1920; 324 pp., \$3.00).

Lytton Strachey's *Queen Victoria* holds the interest and draws the reader on like an absorbing novel. Not only is the Queen vividly, and mercilessly pic-

tured, or rather made to live and move before us, but a whole series of other lifelike portraits are presented—among the most striking those of Prince Albert and some of the ministers, Melbourne, Palmerston, Gladstone, and the unctious Disraeli, laying on the flattery for royalty "with a trowel." There is no attempt even to sketch the history of the age, which is touched only to the small degree that is essential for the background of the personalities that are portrayed and the character studies that are presented. The study is based largely on memoirs, diaries, and other documents, which are cited in the footnotes throughout. It is safe to say that the book will take rank as a classic of biography, and with its predecessor, *Eminent Victorians*, will influence the future of that branch of literature. (Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1921; 434 pp., \$5.00).

### Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Mar. 25, 1922 to April 29, 1922

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#### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Cazenove, Theophilé. Cazenove journal; 1794; a record of the journey of Theophilé Cazenove through New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Edited by R. W. Kelsey. Haverford, Pa.: The Pennsylvania History Press. 103 pp. \$1.80.
- Fish, Carl R. Introduction to the study of United States History. Madison, Wis.: Univ. of Wis.; Correspondence Study Dept.; Univ. Extension Division. 75 pp. 60c.
- Martin, Stuart. The Mystery of Mormonism. New York: Dutton. 318 pp. \$7.50.
- Morrison, Alfred J., Editor. Travels in Virginia in Revolutionary Times; 1769-1802. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. 138 pp. \$1.50.
- Regents (The) questions and answers in American history and civics covering the requirements of high schools and college entrance. New York: Regents Pub. Co., 32 Union Square. 160 pp. 60c.
- Schlesinger, Arthur M. New viewpoints in American History. New York: Macmillan. 299 pp. \$2.40.
- Stebins, Charles M. Tammany Hall, its history, organization and methods. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Stebbins & Co., 1427 Union St. 96 pp. 30c.

#### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Botsford, George W. Hellenic History. New York: Macmillan. 520 pp. \$4.00.
- Burkitt, Miles C. Pre-history; a study of early cultures in Europe and the Mediterranean basin. New York: Macmillan. 438 pp. (10 p. bibl.) \$11.00.
- Heitland, William E. Agricola; a study of agriculture and rustic life in the Greco-Roman world from the point of view of labour. New York: Macmillan. 492 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$16.00.
- Kelso, James A. A history of the Hebrews in outline down to the restoration under Ezra and Nehemiah. Pittsburgh, Pa.: Western Theological Seminary. 54 pp. (2 p. bibl.) \$1.00.
- Ure, Percy Neville. The origin of tyranny. [a history of the Greek political tyrants in the sixth and seventh centuries, B. C.]. New York: Macmillan, 374 pp. \$12.00.

#### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Davis, Muriel O. The story of England; pt. 1, to the death of Elizabeth; pt. 2, from James I to the death of Queen Victoria. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 234 pp. Each, \$1.15.
- Greenwood, Alice D. History of the people of England, Vol. I, 55 B. C. to A. D. 1485. New York: Macmillan. 388 pp. \$3.25.
- Hearnshaw, Fossey J. C. Democracy and the British Empire. New York: Macmillan. 205 pp. \$1.75.

- International Conciliation. 1. Correspondence between Mr. Lloyd George and Sir James Craig on the position of Ulster. 2. Articles of agreement establishing the Irish Free State. 3. Irish Free State (agreement) bill; April, 1922. New York: Am. Assn. for Internat. Conciliation.

#### EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Edmundson, George. History of Holland. New York: Macmillan. 464 pp. (11¼ p. bibl.) \$7.50.
- Ford, Guy S. Stein and the era of reform in Prussia, 1807-1815. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 336 pp. \$3.00.
- Gilliard, Pierre. Thirteen years at the Russian court. [Author was the former tutor of the Czarevitch.] New York: Doran. 304 pp. \$6.00.
- Regents (The) questions and answers in modern European history covering the requirements of high schools and college entrance. New York: Regents Pub. Co., 32 Union Square. 128 pp. 60c.
- Scheffer, J. G. de Hoop. History of the Free Churchmen called the Brownists and Pilgrim Fathers in Holland. Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus and Church. 265 pp. \$3.00.

#### THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Benezet, Louis P. Young people's history of the world war. New York: Macmillan. 481 pp. \$1.20.
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- Jackson, Thomas G. The renaissance of Roman architecture; pt. 1, Italy. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 200 pp. \$10.50.
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- Chamberlin, Frederick. The private character of Queen Elizabeth. New York: Dodd, Mead. 325 pp. \$5.00.
- Margutti, Albert, von, baron. The Emperor Francis Joseph and his times. New York: Doran. 379 pp. \$6.00.
- Coolidge, Louis A. Ulysses S. Grant. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 596 pp. \$4.00.
- Lyons, Maurice F. William F. McCombs, the President-maker. Cincinnati: The Bancroft Co., 301 Mercantile Library Bldg. 147 pp. \$1.50.
- Walker, Joseph. The story of George Washington. Newark, N. J.: Barse and Hopkins. 182 pp. \$1.25.

#### GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Beard, Charles A. The economic basis of politics. New York: Knopf. 99 pp. \$1.50.
- Fassett, Charles M. Handbook of municipal government. New York: Crowell. 192 pp. (9¼ p. bibl.) \$1.50.
- Federal Trade Information Service. Treaties and resolutions of the Conference on limitation of armament as ratified by the United States Senate. New York: Federal Trade Information Service, 175 Fifth Ave. 60 pp. 50c.
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## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

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### GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- A Concept of History, III. Claude C. H. Williamson (*Parents' Review*, April).  
 Disease and History. John Bell (*Dalhousie Review*, April).  
 Homer and the Prophets, or Homer and Now: History and Historicity. Cornelia S. Hulst (*Open Court*, April).  
 The Purpose of the Decemviral Legislation. Jefferson Elmore (*Classical Philology*, April).  
 Reconstruction in the Augustan Age. Elizabeth H. Haight (*Classical Journal*, April).  
 Disintegration of the Roman Empire and Augustine's City of God. E. G. Sihler (*Biblical Review*, April).  
 Paul's Roman Citizenship as Reflected in His Missionary Experiences and His Letters. Rev. James L. Kelso (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, April).  
 Prehistoric Peru. Julio Tella (*Inter-America*, April).  
 Peruvian Traditions. Ricardo Palma (*Inter-America*, April).  
 The Emperors of Japan. F. Hadland Davis (*Calcutta Review*, March).  
 The Economic Background of the Reformation. Charles M. Jacobs (*Lutheran Church Review*, April).  
 Some Aspects of Town Life in the Past. Malcolm Letts (*Contemporary Review*, April).  
 San Martín. Bartolomé Mitre (*Inter-America*, April).  
 The Ecuadorian Campaign, 1821-1822. Carlos A. Vivanco (*Inter-America*, April).  
 The History of Chemistry in China. William H. Adolph (*Scientific Monthly*, May).  
 The Ludwig-Missionsverein. Rev. Joseph A. Schabert (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).  
 The Treaty of Tordesillas and the Argentine-Brazilian Boundary Settlement. Mary W. Williams (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).  
 The Resignation of Bismarck. George Saunders (*Quarterly Review*, April).  
 The Negroes in Mauritius. A. F. Fokeer (*Journal of Negro History*, April).  
 Democracy at San Marino. William Miller (*History*, April).  
 The Government of Argentina. Austin F. Macdonald (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).  
 The Central American Union. Edward Perry (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).  
 New Constitutional Tendencies in Hispanic America. Manoel de Oliveira Lima (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).  
 How Hungary's Chickens Came Home to Roost. Emanuel Urbas (*Current History*, May).

### THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Cornish Saints and Kings. W. J. Ferrar (*London Quarterly Review*, April).  
 The Professional Pricker and His Test for Witchcraft. W. H. Neill (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).  
 Anglo-French Trade Relations under Charles II. D. G. E. Hall (*History*, April).  
 Eighteenth Century Highland Landlords and the Poverty Problem. Margaret I. Adam (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).  
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 South Africa, 1795-1921. Capt. H. Birch Reynardson (*Army Quarterly*, April).  
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 Dominions Old and New. Charles Morse (*Dalhousie Review*, April).  
 The Correspondence of Sir John A. Macdonald. Sir John Willison (*Dalhousie Review*, April).

### THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The American Effort. Erich von Ludendorff (*Atlantic Monthly*, May).

- The Inside Story of the A. E. F. George Pattullo (*Saturday Evening Post*, April 29).  
 A Legend of the Marne, 1914. Lieut-Col. H. G. de Watteville (*Army Quarterly*, April).  
 Colonel Hentsch's Part in the Drama of the Marne. E. W. Sheppard (*National Review*, April).  
 The Champagne-Marne Defensive (continued). Capt. J. S. Switzer (*Infantry Journal*, April).  
 Operations of the Horse Battalion, 15th (German) Field Artillery with the 7th Cavalry Division in Northern France, August, 1914. Lieut-Col. A. Seeger (*Field Artillery Journal*, January-February).  
 The Battle of the Sambre (Charleroi-Mons) August 21-24, 1914. Capt. G. C. Wynne (*Army Quarterly*, April).  
 Field Service of the Coast Artillery in the World War. Col. R. H. C. Kelton (*Journal of the United States Artillery*, April).  
 Intelligence Service in the World War. Capt. C. S. Coulter (*Infantry Journal*, April).  
 Egypt and Sinai, 1914-1917. (*Army Quarterly*, April).  
 The Australian-American Tank Action at Hamel, July 4, 1918. Col. Conrad S. Babcock (*Infantry Journal*, April).  
 Menace of the German Army. George N. Trioche (*Infantry Journal*, April).  
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 Truths from the German Front. Col. George Ruhlen (*Journal of the United States Artillery*, April).  
 "Review of and Comments on a recently published pamphlet written by Kurt Hesse, a German officer, by Major H. Merz, of the Swiss military, from No. 22, October 29, 1921, *Allgemeine Schweizerische Militärzeitung*."  
 Some Lessons of the Naval War. Lord Sydenham (*Quarterly Review*, April).  
 Military Revelations of the Late Herr Erzberger. (*Army Quarterly*, April).  
 The Ohio State University in the World War. Wilbur H. Siebert (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).  
 Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, April).

### UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Are American School Histories too Pro-British? Raymond Turner (*Landmark*, April).  
 American-English History. S. S. Duncan (*Oregon Teachers Monthly*, April). "What should be the attitude of teachers and pupils in the study of our relations with England?"  
 American Ideals and Traditions. Lindsey Blayney (*North American Review*, May).  
 Christopher Columbus and His Great Enterprise. Arthur P. Newton (*History*, April).  
 Uniform of the Army. Col. Laurence A. Curtis (*Infantry Journal*, April).  
 The Native Tribes of Virginia. David I. Bushnell, Jr. (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).  
 Virginia First. (*Tyler's Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).  
 The First University in America, 1619-1622. W. Gordon McCabe (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).  
 The Real Beginning of American Democracy: the Virginia Assembly of 1619. Mary N. Stanard (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).  
 Lord Baltimore and His Freedom in Granting Religious Toleration. William King (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).  
 The Administration of Benjamin Fletcher in New York. Alice Davis (*Quarterly Journal of the N. Y. State Historical Association*, October).  
 Père Antoine, Supreme Officer of the Holy Inquisition of Cartagena, in Louisiana. Rt. Rev. F. L. Gassler (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).  
 Conrad Alexandre Gerard and American Independence. Elizabeth S. Kite (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).

- The Autographs of the Signers.** Frederick M. Hopkins (*Magazine of History*, October, 1921).
- The Adams Family.** Worthington C. Ford (*Quarterly Review*, April).
- The Virginia Dynasty.** (Tyler's *Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).
- Alexander Hamilton and the Limitation of Armaments.** Samuel F. Bemis (*Pacific Review*, March).
- Leadership in Virginia.** (Tyler's *Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).
- The Middle States and the Embargo of 1808.** Louis M. Sears (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).
- The Policy of Albany and English Westward Expansion.** Arthur H. Buffinton (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- Origin of Washington Geographic Names (continued).** Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Virginians on the Ohio and the Mississippi in 1742.** Fairfax Harrison (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- The Settlement of the Valley (Virginia).** Charles E. Kemper (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- Before the Gates of the Wilderness Road: the Settlement of Southwestern Virginia.** Lyman Chalkley (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- An American Ship-BUILDER for Spanish California.** Ralph S. Kuykendall (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February). John F. Morgan, of Boston, Mass., 1788.
- The Beginnings of the Railroads in the Southwest.** R. S. Cotterill (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- The Loss of the Tonquin.** F. W. Howay (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April). Vessel leaving Astoria in 1811, seized and destroyed by natives of Vancouver Island.
- Three Anti-Slavery Newspapers Printed in Ohio prior to 1823.** Annetta C. Walsh (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).
- Study of Cuban Bibliography relative to the Monroe Doctrine.** Carlos M. Trelles (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
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- History of the Know Nothing Party in Indiana.** Carl F. Brand (*Indiana Magazine of History*, March).
- The Work of the Sisters of Mercy in the United States, 1846-1921 (continued).** Sister Mary Eulalia Herron (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).
- The Building of a State: the Story of Illinois.** A Milo Bennett (*Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, October, 1920).
- Illinois Women of the Middle Period.** Arthur C. Cole (*Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, October, 1920).
- The Relation of Phillip Phillips to the Repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854.** Henry B. Learned (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
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- Character Sketch of General Ulysses S. Grant.** Hugh L. Nichols (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Political Campaign of 1875 in Ohio.** Forrest W. Clonts (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Negro Congressmen a Generation after.** Alruthus A. Taylor (*Journal of Negro History*, April).

## Notices

*Anglo-American Historical Committee.* It is proposed to hold an extended session of this Committee on July 5, 1922, at the Institute of Historical Research, Malet Street, London, W. C. 1. All American and Overseas Professors of History will be welcome. It would be a convenience if those who wish to be present would communicate with the Secretary, Institute of Historical Research, from whom further particulars can be obtained.

## Social Studies in the Summer Schools

Arrangements are being made for conferences on the social studies at most of the leading summer schools, including California, Colorado, Columbia, Chicago, Cornell, Harvard, Illinois, Iowa, Iowa State College, Johns Hopkins, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New York University, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Syracuse, Texas, Virginia, Wisconsin, Florida.

These conferences, which will be held in co-operation with the National Council for the Social Studies, will take up for discussion some of the leading problems now confronting those who would increase the effectiveness of teaching in this field.

It is not proposed to make a serious effort to attract large numbers to these conferences, but all who are vitally interested in their purpose will be welcome to contribute. The purpose is to bring together those professors, teachers, and school administrators who are determined to promote the effectiveness of the social studies and who happen to be in a particular summer school, in order that they may exchange views and propose ways and means.

The minutes of the conferences will be kept for the use of the National Council for the Social Studies and will be collated in the offices of the organization for publication in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

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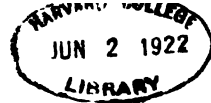
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Volume XIII.  
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, JUNE, 1922.

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Published monthly, except July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

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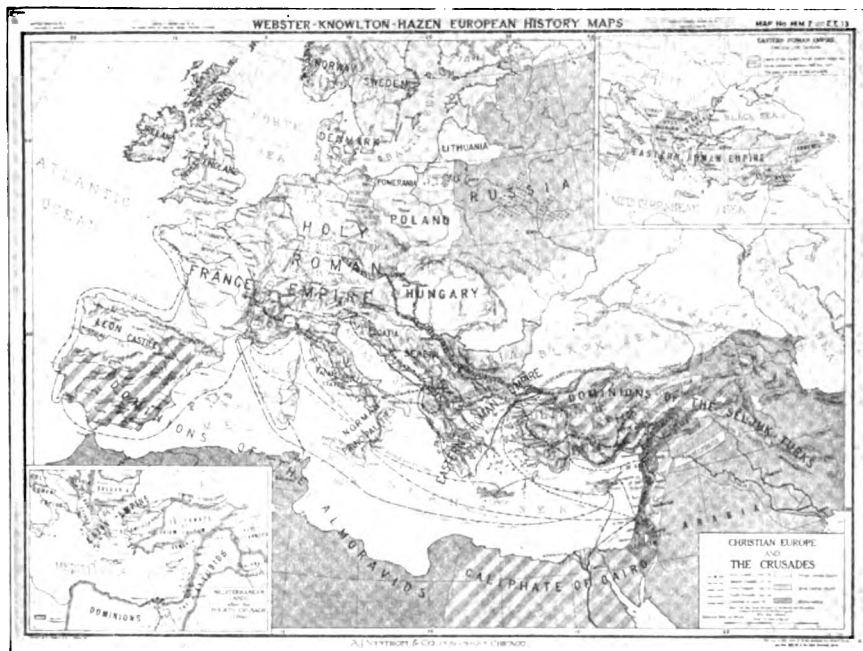
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## Another Shot At Mr. Wells

BY PROFESSOR LYNN THORNDIKE, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

This article will take the attitude that *The Outline of History* by H. G. Wells has already been sufficiently belauded by professed historians and others, while what seem to the present writer certain fundamental deficiencies have not been emphasized enough. The classicists, it is true, have been rather severe upon Mr. Wells, but to my knowledge his book has not been criticized from the standpoint of one interested in the Middle Ages and in the history of science and civilization. While I shall thus limit myself here to what I regard as weak points of the *Outline*, I wish at the start to testify that I have read portions of it (usually not, however, those dealing with the Middle Ages) with the heartiest enjoyment.

Mr. Wells's qualifications as a historian are doubtless superior to his qualifications as a lawyer or an architect, since he owns to "a temperamental lack of appreciation"<sup>1</sup> of the law, and since he gives no sign of having ever scrutinized a building with a thought to its structure<sup>2</sup> or its value as reflecting social needs and aspirations. Nevertheless he lacks the technical training requisite in the historian as well as in the lawyer or the architect. The notion that anyone who can write can write history, and that anyone who can read can study history is a very fallacious one. It is also very true, however, that the historian ought to know a little of everything, and this qualification Mr. Wells may seem at first sight to possess more than some professed historical students. His biological training is certainly an asset. But what about the law and architecture?

Mr. Wells also lacks that direct contact with and comprehension of the original sources, whether documentary or monumental, which the historian should have. Consequently, except in the case of comparatively simple beings like Neanderthal man, Asiatic nomads, and Gypsies, he fails to comprehend the mentality of the peoples of the various ages described or adequately to sympathize with their ideals and difficulties. This is not because he is lacking either in sympathetic imagination or in shrewd intuition. As a matter of fact he possesses these essentials of the historian in a very high degree. It is because in most cases he has neither read their writings nor examined their handiwork. Thus his history as a whole labors under much the same difficulty as his account of China; he writes, as it were, without knowing the language. No matter how extensively he may have read—and his citations do not indicate very extensive reading—his information is received not merely second-hand, but probably fifth or sixth hand. At best he cannot be more than a

compiler from and critic of historians rather than a historian himself. And he is too dependent upon, nay rather at the mercy of, the very writers whose treatment of history he is attempting to reform. He would build a new house but he uses their bricks and their foundations. Furthermore, to change the figure, he seems to me to view history from the outside as an onlooker; he does not get himself or his readers inside the past. He stands outside the past and criticizes it. Considering this fundamental defect, it is really surprising how intelligent is his grasp of the subject-matter, how sound in many ways his plan of organization, how sane in many cases his judgments, although he is undoubtedly too free with them.

But Mr. Wells has another serious defect as a historian, and this is not inaccuracy in the statement of fact, which in the third edition at least is much less than might have been feared in such a work, but omission of important matters and over-emphasis upon others. And this again is not merely the frequent introduction of picturesque and sensational detail of a trivial sort to satisfy the motley appetite of the general reader without serious purpose or concentration. The trouble rather seems to be that Mr. Wells has given little thought to the apportioning of his space; he reiterates needlessly certain points that impress him and omits entirely others that should be included.

A striking instance of this is the partiality shown toward nomads and the almost total neglect of the later history of art and the arts, whether fine or industrial. Mr. Wells's sentimental and romantic attachment to the nomads and his emphasis upon their "restlessness" seems to me extraordinary. I should say that a nomad lives more in a rut and is more the slave of his environment than almost anyone else. I should sooner expect "the boldness of scientific inquiry" (p. 1097) from a bagman than from a nomad. The Turk has the typical nomadic frame of mind and he takes no intellectual interest in anything.

It is not altogether surprising that a popular author and "best seller" should over-estimate "cheap books" as a chief aim and end of mankind and animadvert over and over again upon the clumsiness of Chinese script. But it is less easy to see why his oft expressed faith in popular education should be so strictly limited to book-learning and neglect art and music as means of education. Yet Mr. Wells knows that drawing is older than writing, even if he has not heard of sensory-motor education,

It would not be quite so bad, if Mr. Wells had omitted art and music entirely from his *Outline*, since in that case his presentation, while one-sided, would be less misleading. But he treats of such matters with some fulness in the prehistoric and primitive periods only to neglect their later development. So that even if we agreed with him that "Artistic productions, unlike philosophical thought and scientific discovery, are the ornaments and expression rather than the creative substance of history,"—and we certainly do not agree,—we should still find it hard to explain why the only music mentioned in his index<sup>3</sup> is that of Neolithic man; why he does not so much as name Shakespeare, when he can pause to discuss at some length the reputed blindness of Homer; and why Stonehenge receives seven different page references in his index and the pyramids six, while poetry and cathedrals do not appear at all and Gothic architecture and the Parthenon have but one page reference each. Or why his book contains numerous pictures of prehistoric art and implements but none of medieval craftsmanship or of Italian painting? Or why he "cannot attempt to trace the development of the art of Filippo Lippi, Botticelli, Donatello (died 1466), Leonardo da Vinci (died 1519), Michelangelo (1475-1564), and Raphael (died 1520)," (p. 740) although he found plenty of time to trace the development of the fist-hatchet? Strange propaganda for universal peace this, to prefer weapons of war to peaceful Madonnas! And what historian of the old text-book school ever strung together in a single sentence a more barren series of names and dates than that just quoted? Yet Mr. Wells devotes a whole page to the Gypsies. And inasmuch as the culminating section of the *Outline* is headed, "What this World Might Be were it under one Law and Justice," one feels that Mr. Wells should have sacrificed his "temperamental lack of appreciation" for the law and traced more fully and coherently the past of legal institutions.

In short, Mr. Wells seems to have adopted a hop, skip, and jump method in writing the *Outline*. Taking a good running start back in the geological, pre-human, and stone ages, he has hopped lightly from hemisphere to hemisphere, he has skipped much in the historic period, but he has "landed with both feet" on various historic personages, such as Caesar, Alexander, and Napoleon. Now I hold no brief for British rule in India, but I suspect that it was mainly in order to reflect upon certain aspects of it that Wells glorified a nomad despot like Akbar on the say-so of a German *Weltgeschichte* (imperialistic Teutons<sup>4</sup> enamoured of Kaiserism have been largely responsible for the absurd glorifications of Caesar and Alexander hitherto all too current) instead of treating him as he treated the afore-mentioned rulers and conquerors. And I have not the slightest objection to Wells's giving Cato the Censor a good kick, but I do object to his mentioning Cato no less than seven times and Solon only twice, and not saying a word concerning mosaics or stained glass, miniatures or flying buttresses, Shakespeare or Byron or Words-

worth. The Germans bombarded Rheims, but Wells does not give it even that much attention; instead he expends his perfectly good ammunition upon Marcus Porcius Cato and Sir Edward Carson.

In Mr. Wells's treatment of the Middle Ages his emphasis upon the Mongols is good, but his subordination of medieval Latin civilization to the crusades is antiquated, and his assertion that "It was only as the fifteenth century drew to its close that any indications of the real vitality of Western Europe became clearly apparent" (p. 700), is all wrong, as is his statement that "Until the sixteenth century we must remember European seamen never sailed out into the Atlantic Ocean" (p. 560), even though he excepts the Northmen, since the Madeiras, Canaries, and Azores were charted by 1351. His discussion of the medieval town and house is faulty, and he should have known better than to take a West German town of the fifteenth century as typical on the authority of a German writer. There was, I think, far more socialism and popular education in the thirteenth century than Mr. Wells realizes. In treating of the papacy he tells us only of its "defects and limitations," which is not fair, and he does not understand the relations of the popes with men of science.

Another error in connection with the history of science is seen in the statements that "this scientific blaze at Alexandria did not endure altogether for more than a century" (p. 343), and that the mental vigour of the Greeks ended with the decay of the Alexandrian Museum in the second century B. C. (pp. 556-7). Hero, for example, did not live in this first century of the Alexandrian age, but sometime between 150 B. C. and 250 A. D.—to say nothing of the possibility of still later additions to the works current under his name—while the great Greek scientists, Galen and Ptolemy, were of the second century A. D. Narrow classicists have probably led Mr. Wells astray here. He should either tell what Hero's "steam engine" really amounted to, or say nothing of it. Other assertions concerning the history of science and invention strike me as dubious but cannot be enlarged upon here. My aim is not to point out minor inaccuracies but defects which vitiate the reader's estimate of the civilization of the past or any considerable period of the past.

The three guiding stars toward which Mr. Wells would seem to have the whole course of evolution move are a more or less socialized world state and religion, organized scientific research, and popular education. Such is the characteristic message that comes forth from "a middle-class English home" (p. 435). Even in the eight points (pp. 1093-4) which elaborate these three, one will search in vain for mention of cunning and constructive manual labor, art or music.<sup>5</sup> They are as absent as from a Non-Conformist chapel or a mid-Victorian parlour. And alas! we fear that these are not so much Mr. Wells's own limitations as that he knows his reading public, whether in England or America, all too well. They have heard before of the league of nations, of the progress of modern science, and of "education," and

so are ready to accord him a further hearing on these matters, but perhaps not even he could make them read about art.<sup>6</sup> But if he could, what an opportunity! And how grossly, though perhaps inadvertently, unfair he has been to a number of past periods by failing to recognize their superiority to the present in this respect.

Indeed, one wonders whether Mr. Wells's entire conception of the course of civilization is not a perverted one, and whether, in order to exalt and lead up to the "education" and "democracy" of the present, he has not practically suppressed the greater part of the achievements of mankind since the primitive and prehistoric and archaeological and nomadic periods. The last reference to medicine in his index is to medicine among the Arabs. For these early periods Mr. Wells treats with fair inclusiveness of man's life as a whole, but thereafter the evils of politics and religion seem too largely to engross his attention, and his text is illustrated only with maps of political boundaries, and the heads of individual politicians or reformers. A cynic might call it less a history of civilization than of barbarism, prehistoric and present.

Centuries ago when Rome was falling and Western Europe was being overrun by barbarians, Orosius to justify Christianity wrote a brief world history, very popular in its day, in which he misrepresented the pagan past. Mr. Wells, writing an analogous work after the world catastrophe of 1914 in order to justify his new gospel, has, I fear, fallen into a somewhat similar error in his attitude toward the civilization of the historic period. Gibbon, looking back centuries after upon the age which followed Orosius, character-

ized it as the triumph of Christianity and barbarism. The tone and content of the *Outline* do not make me wholly confident that in the age which follows Wells the new world order which he desires may not have a somewhat similar accompaniment. In fine, I hold that Mr. Wells has not properly selected those "general facts of human history" of which he says there should be "common knowledge," or those "historical ideas" which should be "common" (p. vi). Let anyone who has some familiarity with the past test this for himself by thinking of three or four historical facts or ideas which he regards as especially important and then looking for them in the *Outline*.

<sup>1</sup>The Third Edition, p. 537, note.

<sup>2</sup>For him the Parthenon is simply "a thing of beauty" (p. 294); St. Sophia, "great and beautiful" (p. 536); Gothic architecture, a "lovely efflorescence" (p. 736). "Byzantine buildings" at Worms and Cologne—why does he mention these and say nothing of those at Ravenna?—are "pleasant" and "delight the tourist" (p. 625).

<sup>3</sup>It omits a characterization at p. 625 of Charlemagne as "a distinguished amateur of church music;" but I cannot undertake to keep rectifying Mr. Wells's index.

<sup>4</sup>I have Mommsen and Holm especially in mind.

<sup>5</sup>In the following section Wells does allude briefly to "splendid artists" along with "first-class investigators" and "creative minds."

<sup>6</sup>And let me interject that my experience with American undergraduates has been that if they do not appreciate art, it is because they have seldom seen any—upon entering college they usually cannot name offhand a single great painting or statue that they have seen; that they are hungry for art without knowing it, and that they welcome the interpretation of history in terms of the artistic remains.

## The Economic Relations of England and Ireland, 1660-1750

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Many students of English history have pointed out the fact that in the 17th Century the English people became engrossed in commercial and industrial affairs. The organization of numerous commercial companies, the establishment of a large number of colonies and the care with which the trade and industries of the colonies were regulated are all indications of the economic trend. If, however, one wishes to appreciate thoroughly the direction which this economic tide was taking not even the colonies afford the best example of the attempt on the part of the English to restrain the commerce and industries of their dependent peoples. Ireland was close at hand and economic competition from there was keenly appreciated and feared in England. Throughout a long series of years, therefore, the English strenuously endeavored to suppress Irish trade and industry. Indeed, the story of the way in which Ireland fell a prey, one after another, to the commercial, agricul-

tural and manufacturing elements in England best illustrates to what length these respective classes went in the attempt to secure exclusive trade privileges and a monopoly of the market.

Even before the opening of the 17th Century there were some instances of the conflict of English and Irish economic interests. The Irish Parliament passed two laws in the reign of Henry VIII forbidding the export of any wool from Ireland.<sup>1</sup> These laws were replaced in 1569 by the imposition of a prohibitive duty of five shillings per stone on wool when exported, the intention being to encourage its manufacture at home.<sup>2</sup> In a report made in 1686, Thomas Wentworth, Lord Lieutenant in Ireland under Charles I, declared that the manufacture of clothing in Ireland was undesirable since it might injure the woolen trade in England. Moreover, he contended that the royal revenue would be much greater if the Irish exported their wool, because duties would then

be collected at exportation and also when it was returned as the finished product.<sup>8</sup> Evidently the Irish themselves were not desirous of keeping all their wool at home because in 1640 the Irish Parliament requested that the laws prohibiting the export of various articles from the kingdom be revealed.<sup>4</sup> The king consented to remove the prohibitory duties levied on exported wool by the Elizabethan laws, but only on condition that it should be sent nowhere except to England.<sup>6</sup>

Although Cromwell and his army dealt with the Irish most severely it was not his purpose to subject Ireland to England in an economic way. For instance, in the year 1654 an ordinance was passed providing that there should be levied in Ireland only those import duties which were collected in England.<sup>6</sup> In another ordinance all the provisions of the English law in regard to imports and exports were distinctly declared to be in force both in Scotland and in Ireland.<sup>7</sup> This meant that the Irish not only enjoyed the supposed benefits of the ordinance of trade of 1651, but also that they enjoyed perfect commercial equality with England, a situation as favorable as they could have expected.

Even the Restoration did not immediately change this enlightened policy of economic equality between the two kingdoms. In July, 1660, Charles II instructed the Duke of Albemarle, the Lord Lieutenant, to use every means to encourage the trade of Ireland so long as it did not interfere with English trade, which, he declared, should never be sacrificed to Irish interests.<sup>8</sup> Again, in the Navigation Act, signed by the king on September 18, 1660, there were no provisions disadvantageous to the trade and commerce of Ireland. In fact, the Navigation Act specifically stated that no goods were to be imported into or exported out of His Majesty's plantations in America, Asia or Africa, except in ships of England, Ireland, Wales or Berwick on Tweed; that no goods from Asia, Africa or America were to be imported into England, Ireland or Wales except by ships of England, Ireland, Wales or the plantations; and finally that certain enumerated articles should be carried only to other plantations or to England, Ireland or Wales.<sup>9</sup> A law passed in 1662 declared further that, in fulfilling the provisions of the law requiring English ships to be manned by sailors three-fourths of whom were English "it is to be understood that any of His Majesty's subjects of England, Ireland and his plantations are to be accounted English and no others."<sup>10</sup> It is plain, therefore, that for the first few years of the reign of Charles II the English government allowed Ireland to remain on a plane of economic equality with England.

It was from the English wool manufacturers that complaint first arose concerning the economic relations of England and Ireland. Naturally they wanted a large domestic supply of wool, and hence they desired that it should not be shipped to foreign countries, because, as they complained, they would be despatched "with arrows from our own quiver."<sup>11</sup>

The apprehension of the wool manufacturers was no doubt justified. Just before Charles II returned to the throne George Downing, writing from The Hague, declared that an immense quantity of English wool was being manufactured there to the great injury of England's woolen industries.<sup>12</sup> It was quite natural therefore that at the Restoration Charles II should instruct the Lord Lieutenant in Ireland "particularly to renew a strict and severe prohibition against the transportation of wool to any parts beyond the seas" except only to England.<sup>13</sup> With no apparent concern for the inconsistency of his actions the king shortly thereafter granted to Major Henry O'Neile license to transport 60,000 pounds of wool to France and other places in direct opposition to the previous instruction and to the Elizabethan laws.<sup>14</sup> Such disregard of England's woolen interests was decidedly unpopular with the Privy Council, however, and the officials in Ireland were again informed that they should not grant licenses for the exportation of wool to foreign countries.<sup>15</sup>

Charles II had given permission to send Irish wool to England not only because the importation of it increased his customs, but because he realized that if the raw wool remained in Ireland the Irish would be tempted to manufacture it, a development which would be extremely distasteful to the woolen manufacturers of England.<sup>16</sup> Therefore, when the Irish asked for a law making obligatory in Ireland the wearing of clothes of their own manufacture the request was immediately rejected in England.<sup>17</sup> Moreover, in order to expedite the export of Irish wool to England and to prevent it from going to the continent, the king appointed two men, Sir Nicholas Armorer and Gabriel Silvius, whose duty it was to require bonds of all persons exporting Irish wool to the effect that they would take it to no other place than England. In case of disobedience of the law these two men were to collect the forfeitures under the bonds.<sup>18</sup>

The year 1668 saw the real beginning of the hostile economic legislation toward Ireland. The English landed gentry disliked the competition of the Irish in furnishing the English market with beef cattle. Although in 1660 a rather heavy duty had been imposed on Irish cattle imported into England,<sup>19</sup> it was by no means prohibitory. In the spring many thousand head of cattle were fattened on the abundant pastures in Ireland and later sent to the English market. The agricultural class in England pointed to this competition as being the chief cause of the decreasing profits and smaller rents from their lands.<sup>20</sup> Accordingly a prohibition of this cattle trade was inserted in the Act of Trade of 1663 by imposing high duties on all Irish cattle and sheep imported into England between July 1 and December 20 in each year, the period when such importation was naturally the heaviest. The Duke of Ormonde, who had been appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1661, declared that this prohibition would inevitably cause a great decrease in the king's customs.<sup>21</sup> It was suggested that the farmers of the customs in



England had not lessened their offer for the customs on account of the prohibition of Irish cattle.<sup>22</sup> This surprising situation only made the Duke suspect that they contemplated collusion with breakers of the law or as he expressed it, the farmers would have "the sole trade at their rates."<sup>23</sup>

Other provisions of the Act of Trade almost completely excluded Ireland from the commercial equality in the colonial trade provided for by the Navigation Act of 1660. Only the king's subjects of England, Wales and Berwick might export goods to the plantations; with the exception of Irish victuals all goods had to be exported from England in English-built shipping; and finally the enumerated articles from the colonies had to be carried to England or Wales before they could be taken to any other place.<sup>24</sup> The omission of Ireland was no unintended oversight on the part of the English Parliament. With these disabilities on Irish trade in mind the Earl of Anglesey bitterly declared that the laws of England "are now calculated more narrowly than in former times, only for the profit (of) this (English) kingdom."<sup>25</sup> It is not surprising therefore that the Act of Trade aroused great hostility in Ireland. It was submitted to a committee of the Irish Board of Trade, which sets forth its grievances to the king through the Duke of Ormonde.<sup>26</sup> The Duke had already shown his intense interest; in fact he had lost no chance of impressing the king with Ireland's unhappy state. The king seemed to be entirely convinced of Ireland's plight, but, in view of the stubbornness with which the English landed gentry had insisted upon this part of the law he did not feel that it was wise to disregard its provisions.<sup>27</sup>

In the latter part of 1664 another affliction beset Irish trade when a number of English merchants requested of the king a charter granting them the sole trade to the Canary Islands. Since a great deal of wine was imported to Ireland from there, and many victuals were exported by the Irish to those Islands, the grant of such a charter was of great consequence to Ireland. Nevertheless, notwithstanding a lively opposition, the patent was issued in January, 1665, to a company which was to consist of English subjects only.<sup>28</sup> In the following August the Irish merchants of Dublin, in a petition addressed to the Lord Lieutenant, protested loudly against the charter which deprived them of what they called their most useful trade.<sup>29</sup> The king disregarded the protest entirely, and, on the 10th of November, 1665, he directed the Lord Lieutenant to permit no violation of the company's privileges.<sup>30</sup> The Duke of Ormonde boldly declined the immediate execution of the king's order on the ground that it was his duty first to present the objections of the Irish farmers of the customs, the merchants, and various other people in Ireland.<sup>31</sup> He declared that the limitation on the export of Irish wool, the prohibition on the export of cattle, and the exclusion from the plantation trade, were burdens all too heavy, and that restraint from the Canary trade would be another addition to Irish poverty.<sup>32</sup> The proclamation was insisted upon, however, and being

convinced that he could do nothing more, the Duke caused it to be issued, September 8, 1666.<sup>33</sup>

The English landed interest was not yet satisfied with the provisions of the Act of Trade of 1663 in regard to Irish cattle. Cattle were still imported into England either in direct violation of the law, or they were brought in during the spring, and then fattened for the market later in the year. The landed gentry again raised the cry of decreasing rents on account of this competition, and another parliamentary bill was urged in the latter part of 1665. The Duke of Ormonde expressed the hope that the opportunity would not be neglected by "those that look beyond their own grounds and sheep walks to put the House in mind that Ireland is one of the King's kingdom's and the people are his subjects of whose welfare he is obliged to have some care and to see them used with some reasonable measure of equality."<sup>34</sup> He condemned as most unjust the previous cattle act and the exclusion of Ireland from the direct trade to the colonies. Over and over again he insisted that the Irish must have freedom of trade or the army in Ireland could not be supported. "But," said he, "perhaps they will not believe a man bald till they see his brains."<sup>35</sup> In a long letter to the king the Duke and his council pleaded earnestly that the cattle trade and those trades depending upon it constituted nine-tenths of the Irish commerce; that Ireland could import nothing from England when her chief export was gone; and that the contemplated law would cut off Ireland from the markets of England, and compel her to depend upon goods imported from foreign countries.<sup>36</sup> Arguments were also presented to Parliament showing that the receipts from the customs would be diminished and 400 ships thrown out of employment.<sup>37</sup> It was all to no avail; the landed interests were determined to carry their point. However, the opposition to their plan was so spirited that it drew from the Duke of Buckingham the stinging remark, that whoever was against the bill "had either an Irish interest or an Irish understanding."<sup>38</sup> But, do what they might, the opponents of the bill could not prevent its passage.<sup>39</sup> Its provisions were sweeping. From February 2, 1667, the importation not only of all cattle, sheep and swine but of all beef, pork or bacon from Ireland to England or Wales was to be deemed "a public and common nuisance" punishable by the forfeiture of the goods.<sup>40</sup> At the same time a proclamation was issued forbidding the importation of Irish cattle into Scotland.<sup>41</sup>

The Duke of Ormonde might well have given up hope of ameliorating the Irish economic situation but he refused to do so. He may have remembered that the king had felt that the original cattle act was unjust, although he had not dared to reject either that or the last one. In the early part of February, 1667, the Duke called a meeting of the most prominent merchants in Ireland at which measures of relief and retaliation were discussed. They finally agreed upon an address which the Earl of Anglesey and others were to present to the king. In addition to a request for the suspension of the act of 1633, in order that the

Irish could trade to the colonies, they begged that all restraint on the export of commodities of the growth and manufacture of Ireland to foreign countries should be taken off during the Anglo-Dutch war which was going on at that time, and that passes be given to trade with France, Denmark, Holland or any other country whether these nations were enemies of England or not. They declared that this request would have to be granted or it would be necessary for England to despatch money for the support of the Irish government. They also asked, that so long as the restraint on Irish cattle was maintained in Scotland, a proclamation be issued prohibiting all commodities of the growth and manufacture of Scotland from entering Ireland.<sup>42</sup>

The king and Privy Council decided to accede to the petition of the Irish in part, by permitting them to trade with Irish products to all foreign countries. The Irish were warned, however, not to engage in trade to the colonies except as the law of 1668 permitted, which admonition meant that they were not to export anything there except victuals; also they were not to infringe on the rights of the Canary Company, at that time on its last legs.<sup>43</sup> Two months later, April 24, 1667, the Privy Council ordered that the limits of the Royal, East India and Turkey companies should be excepted from the liberty granted to the Irish as in the case of the Canary Company.<sup>44</sup>

The relief thus granted to the Irish met temporarily the situation which the Anglo-Dutch war had created. Vessels from several countries came to Dublin. On October 30, 1667, George Warburton declared "all our seaports are full of trade, great store of our country commodities being daily shipped off."<sup>45</sup> The measure was only a partial relief, however. For instance, the restrictions requiring the enumerated articles to be brought only to England and Wales evoked the observation from Sir George Rawdon that "it is very severe that all foreign goods must first be landed in England and here we the retailers only, and they in England, the merchants. We shall ever be niderlins till doomsday."<sup>46</sup> It was true; the English merchants alone could export goods to the colonies. The Irish could send nothing there but victuals and those only with English merchants in English ships. The return cargo was necessarily made up in large part of enumerated articles, which had to be landed in England before they could be carried to Ireland. As a consequence, the Irish found themselves without any ships, and paying English merchants large freights for carrying their victuals to France and the Barbadoes. In vain did the Irish Council of Trade seek to do something to give encouragement to Irish ships.<sup>47</sup>

Since the Irish had not been expressly forbidden to carry on the colonial trade they began to contest the meaning of the law by maintaining that they still enjoyed whatever privileges the Navigation Act of 1660 gave them. The English customs farmers, whose influence in commercial affairs has never been properly appreciated, stated the case exactly, however, when they declared that the Navigation Act

permitted them to take bonds for the return of the cargo either to England or Ireland but that, under the Act of Trade, bonds could be taken for the return of the cargo only to England and Wales.<sup>48</sup> The dispute dragged on, partly because the king was loath to settle it. Parliament relieved him by deciding against the Irish. A law passed in 1670 distinctly repealed any right the Irish had of having the bonds issued so that the cargo might be permitted to come directly from the plantations to Ireland.<sup>49</sup>

In the meantime Lord Robartes had taken the place of the Duke of Ormonde as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. His instructions informed him in no uncertain terms that, although the trade of Ireland was to be encouraged, nothing was to be done to injure the English trade, no matter how great the benefit to Ireland. The laws in regard to the plantation trade and the export of wool to England only were recommended for his especial care.<sup>50</sup>

The Irish continued to feel the prohibition of the colonial trade keenly. Sir George Rawdon maintained that it caused more damage to Ireland than the restraint on the cattle trade.<sup>51</sup> Doubtless the Irish had taken as much advantage of the pretended ambiguity of the act of 1668 as they could. After that matter was settled by the Act of 1670 they deliberately disobeyed the law. In collusion with the Irish customs farmers, who allowed them to be registered under false names in Ireland, ships from the plantations were permitted to land at all the Irish ports before they put in at an English port.<sup>52</sup> The Treasury department was aroused and ordered such ships to be seized by the officers of the customs in Ireland. As a further means of preventing such infractions of the law a special surveyor of the customs was sent to Ireland.<sup>53</sup>

Lord Robartes was succeeded as Lord Lieutenant by the Earl of Essex, who in writing to Lord Arlington, October 26, 1672, called attention to the decay of trade in Ireland, which he attributed in part to the war then going on, but mostly to the act of 1670.<sup>54</sup> In order to provide some relief for the Irish the Earl of Essex proposed that twenty ships be permitted to trade directly to the plantations. Treasurer Clifford replied that such liberty need not be expected, and advised him rather to keep close watch on all ships which attempted to come in from the plantations.<sup>55</sup> Also, the Customs Commissioners declared that, since the colonies had been founded at the expense of Englishmen, the laws had appropriated the plantation trade to England where it properly belonged, and that any such concession as was proposed would greatly injure English trade by replacing English manufactures and products with those of Ireland.<sup>56</sup> There seemed no escape. The farmers of the customs in Ireland gave up the fight, but they contended that the restrictions of the act of 1670 entitled them to damages from the government as having taken away a profitable source of revenue, which, under their contract they should enjoy. The government granted this contention and later they received a warrant for £12,000.<sup>57</sup>

The Treasury department took numerous steps to secure the observance of the acts of trade but plantation ships continued to drop anchor in Irish ports pretending that they were disabled. This subterfuge irritated Thomas Osborne, the Lord High Treasurer, who sharply informed the Lord Lieutenant that such excuses could not be accepted else it would happen every day.<sup>68</sup> But the illicit trade could not be stopped entirely. Moreover, a statute passed in 1672 furnished an excuse for the disobedience of those of 1663 and 1670. The new law levied certain duties on the enumerated articles, such as white sugar 5 shillings per cwt., indigo 2d. per pound, and tobacco 1d. per pound, which duties were to be paid in the colonies when bonds were not entered into to export the articles to England, Wales or Berwick. Plainly the law intended that this should be a tax on these goods when carried from one colony to the other. The Irish, however, interpreted it as giving them permission to bring these goods directly to Ireland, and strange to say the English government acquiesced. In the words of the Irish Commissioners of Customs in 1686, "all the plantation goods were imported direct into Ireland as freely as when the trade was open by the Navigation Act, and though the act of 25 Car. II (1672) took effect from September, 1673, by which all the plantation goods imported into Ireland ought to have paid the duties imposed by it yet the same have returned little or nothing to the king in the Plantations, as the Commissioners of the English Customs are aware. And though they used every effort to seize ships and goods under the act of 22 & 23 Car. II (1670), yet it is plain that same neither prevented direct importation of tobacco into Ireland, nor compelled the merchants to pay the plantation duty."<sup>69</sup>

This direct trade with Ireland was also connived at in the colonies. In an account of the Island of Jamaica of January, 1676, Governor Vaughan declared that the trade in provisions to Ireland was preferable to the same trade with New England because the Irish took more products of Jamaica than the people of New England.<sup>70</sup> In 1680 a ship from Ireland was seized in Jamaica because it had several casks of Irish soap on board. The case came up in court. In order to clear the defendant one witness swore that soap was victuals and that one could live on it for a month if necessary. The jury accepted this testimony and the defendant was acquitted.<sup>71</sup> About the same time one hears of a spirited discussion in Ireland as to what import duties should be charged respectively on tobacco coming directly from the plantations and from the plantations by way of England.<sup>72</sup> It is plain that the law of 1670 was not enforced either in Ireland or the colonies.

The restriction on their commerce was sufficient, however, to impel the Irish to turn their attention to other means of making a livelihood. Much land was turned into sheep pastures and the export of wool began to be increasingly important<sup>73</sup> although the exact amount can hardly be ascertained. According

to a set of figures for the year ending September 29, 1671, there was exported 852,807 stones of Irish wool.<sup>74</sup> Naturally this amount does not include the wool which was taken out of Ireland by stealth most of which never reached England, but went abroad to the great detriment of the English woolen manufacturers. Furthermore, in 1672, the Irish Parliament endeavored to encourage prospective woolen manufacturers by imposing rather heavy duties on exported wool.<sup>75</sup> Hoping to take advantage of this encouragement the Duke of Ormonde and others started a woolen enterprise at Clonmel and succeeded in getting it well under way. For a time there was reason to believe that it and similar undertakings might interfere with the woolen industry in England. Since the supply could be obtained at cheaper prices than in England the only question was to get weavers and spinners who would work at reasonable wages.<sup>76</sup> After the enterprise at Clonmel had been in operation for some time, however, it failed completely. The competition of Irish manufacturers did not, therefore, furnish a serious obstacle to the English woolen manufacturers.

The clandestine export of Irish wool to various parts of the continent, however, continued as much as ever in spite of all precautions. As has been suggested bonds had to be given that the wool would be carried to England, but by collusion with the customs officials, who accepted counterfeited certificates, it failed to reach its supposed destination. The two men, Armorer and Silvius, whom the king had empowered to collect the forfeitures under the bonds, also apparently grossly abused their office. Arrangements were made with them, so that the penalties were either not incurred or when incurred could not be collected. During the administration of the Earl of Essex it was said that of the £22,900 incurred as damages, only £770 was actually collected.<sup>77</sup> In December, 1675, the Earl of Danby, then Lord High Treasurer, endeavored to stop this fraudulent practice by directing the Irish customs officials to send a duplicate of each ship's entry to the officials in England.<sup>78</sup> This order met with no more success than previous efforts for, in 1678, when the Duke of Ormonde was once more Lord Lieutenant, he admitted that a great deal of Irish wool was finding its way to foreign countries. He made an honest effort to stop it by offering rewards for the seizure of offenders, by which means several men were apprehended and prosecuted. The Duke maintained rightly, however, that the illegal export of wool could not be stopped until some severe punishment was inflicted on offending customs officials, not only in Ireland, but also in England.<sup>79</sup>

The Irish cattle act of 1667 had been passed for seven years. During this time its stringent provisions had been even more unpopular than the restrictions on the exportation of wool, and there were naturally numerous attempts to evade or dispense with the law. For instance, on December 15, 1672, the Earl of Essex wrote to Arlington that he had a proposition to make, which would be of "considerable advantage" to him, but that it was of such a nature as to make

it best to send someone to England to confer with him on the matter.<sup>70</sup> For this purpose he selected Mr. Godolphin, who was not himself so discreet because he boldly wrote to Arlington asking him if he "would think it worth while to procure a license from His Majesty for transporting from hence to England 10,000 cattle, which would be worth the procurer about £5000." He suggested that cattle were constantly being exported in small numbers anyway and all that was needed in this case was "an intimation of His Majesty's pleasure to the governing men" of several of the chief towns.<sup>71</sup> What was accomplished in this interesting negotiation has not been discovered. It is unlikely, however, that anything came of it.

On every hand merchants and consumers were demanding the repeal of the unpopular cattle act. It was argued that the English customs suffered both in the decreased duty on the incoming cattle, and in export duties on articles sent in return; that navigation had declined, the prohibition having dispensed with three or four hundred ships used constantly in the trade; that, whereas before the prohibition foreign ships had been victualled in England, it was now done in Ireland where beef was much cheaper than in England; and finally that the Irish had been compelled to resort to the raising of sheep the wool from which was being taken to the continent to the detriment of the English woollen manufacturers.<sup>72</sup> Sir William Petty argued that the value of oxen and sheep brought into England had never been great as compared to the total consumption there, and that the price of these animals had not increased much since the prohibition. On the other hand he contended that English mariners had lost 4s. 6d. per head in freight, owners of grazing lands in England a like amount, the king considerable customs; and even if the English cattle raisers had gained by the prohibition, the sheep raisers had lost heavily from it on account of the increased competition of Irish wool.<sup>73</sup>

Perhaps it was due to this opposition that at its expiration the law was not renewed immediately. Three years later, however, in 1677, the country gentlemen came forward with the same old plea of falling rents and the decay of their trade.<sup>74</sup> After a very bitter fight in which friend was arrayed against friend the bill forever prohibiting the importation of Irish cattle and fish into England was passed.<sup>75</sup> It was not until 1680, however, that such an act was signed by the king and thus became a permanent law.<sup>76</sup>

It has been seen how the Irish were permitted to interpret the law of 1672, which imposed duties on plantation goods carried to other places than England, so as almost completely to annul the prohibition against importing the enumerated articles direct from the plantations, as specifically provided in the act of 1670. According to the testimony of the Irish Customs Commissioners not only was the law of 1670 everywhere disregarded but very little customs were collected under the law of 1672. The act of 1670 expired in 1680, and what little restraint it may have placed on the direct importation of the enumerated

articles was thereby removed. In an order of February 16, 1681, the Privy Council declared that the expiration of this law in no way affected the force of the act of 1672, and that therefore the duties imposed by it were subject to collection.<sup>77</sup> Steps were then taken for the first time to put the act of 1672 into actual effect.<sup>78</sup>

It was then discovered that tobacco imported by way of England to Ireland paid in duties  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. more than tobacco imported directly from the colonies. This was on account of the fact that  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. of the English duty was not drawn back. The trade to Ireland by way of England was thus at a disadvantage. Accordingly, on report of the Commissioners of the Customs, it was ordered that the two duties be equalized by charging  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. less in Ireland for tobacco imported into Ireland by way of England.<sup>79</sup> The Irish Commissioners of Revenue then proposed that the duty of 2d. per pound levied in the plantations by the law of 1672 be removed and that duties equal to one half those supposed to be levied in that law be collected in Ireland. This was agreed to. From April to Christmas, 1685, the Commissioners collected £4881 from this source, a sum, which, they declared, was more than had been realized in all the ten years previous from the whole duty when collected in the colonies, even including the intercolonial trade.<sup>80</sup>

Ireland was not to enjoy the colonial trade long. Soon after the accession of James II Parliament revived the law of 1670 requiring the enumerated articles to go only to England, Wales and Berwick.<sup>81</sup> The merchants in Ireland and the Customs Commissioners were very much concerned. The latter drew up for the Lord Lieutenant an exhaustive report, which reviewed the history of Ireland's participation in the plantation trade to that time. They maintained that the renewal of the law would destroy their colonial trade and that their ships would "go by the walls"; that the Irish merchants would be ruined on account of their having to enter outward and inward from England, which necessitated the loss of several months; that to provide for the various securities, bonds and customs necessary in going by way of England would require a bank of money, which no Irish merchant possessed; and that it would be far better to continue the scheme of charging the half duty which had been tried in the previous year, 1685. Finally, they said, there could be no harm in permitting tobacco to come directly to Ireland, since it was never re-exported to other countries, and careful measures would be taken to prevent such injury to English commerce.<sup>82</sup> The Earl of Clarendon, then Lord Lieutenant, supplemented this report with a letter, addressed to the Lord Treasurer, in which he argued that no injury could possibly come to English trade by dispensing with the law, and that such dispensation would aid Ireland greatly.<sup>83</sup>

The Customs Commissioner in England reminded the Irish that the trade of the English plantations belonged to England, and that more revenue would come to the king if the Irish were compelled to import

their goods by way of England, as has been amply demonstrated in Bristol, where, in the three years following the expiration of the act of 1670, 1,841,684 pounds less tobacco had been brought there to be re-exported to Ireland than in the three years preceding the expiration. In this one port, therefore, a large amount of revenue had been lost to the king because, as has been said,  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. of the customs duty was not drawn back upon re-exportation. As to the loss of the plantation trade, the Commissioners declared that the Irish could still carry victuals there as the law of 1668 provided; and that it was not, therefore, as has been asserted, necessary to enter out from England; neither was it necessary to return to England unless enumerated articles were carried. From these facts the Commissioners concluded that there was no ground for the complaint.<sup>84</sup>

The Irish Commissioners replied that they did not believe that the  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. not drawn back on tobacco when re-exported from England to Ireland would amount to the  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. extra levied in Ireland as in 1685. Furthermore, they maintained that it was necessary to carry some English or European goods in their cargoes to the colonies. According to the law in such a case, the ship must enter out from England; a requirement to which they declared they would cheerfully submit if only they could import all goods directly from the plantations. As to the loss in the Bristol trade, which had been cited, they answered, that the reason for this was because at that time all trade was shifting north to Chester and Liverpool.<sup>85</sup> By this time the Commissioners in England had grown impatient at the controversy and pointed out sharply that the Irish were under no more prohibition than during the nine years in which the law had been in force before.<sup>86</sup> The opinion held by the English Customs Commissioners was shared by the Board of Trade so that it was finally decided to deny the petition of the Irish and grant no dispensation of the law as it had been revived.<sup>87</sup> Orders to that effect were sent to Ireland in June, 1686.<sup>88</sup>

If the Irish had been unable to secure trade privileges during the reign of James II it would seem as if they had little to hope for when William of Orange became king.<sup>89</sup> For several years conditions remained much the same but in the Parliamentary session of 1695-6 a law was passed which to some extent lifted the burden on Irish commerce. While the law of 1662 had distinctly declared that Irish sailors were to be accounted as English in making up the crew of a ship. Irish built ships had not enjoyed similar privileges. The new law, however, stated that all trade between the colonies and England or between the colonies themselves should be carried on in ships of the build of England, Ireland or the plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and navigated with mariners, three-fourths of whom were from such places; that no plantation goods should be put on shore in Ireland until they had first been landed in England, Wales or Berwick; and finally that, notwithstanding the payment of the duty as provided for in 1672, the plantation goods must first be imported as above.<sup>90</sup>

These several provisions placed Irish ships for the first time since 1668 on equal terms with those of England, but, on the other hand, henceforth not only enumerated articles but all other plantation goods had to be landed in England before being taken to Ireland. This subterfuge of the Irish paying, or pretending to pay, the duty on plantation goods as provided for in 1672, and then importing them directly to Ireland, was not to be permitted. This duty was to be levied upon intercolonial trade, as the original law plainly intended. In the following year instructions were given to the governors to enforce strictly all the provisions of the plantation laws.<sup>91</sup>

It has already been pointed out that the manufacture of woollens in Ireland was regarded with disfavor throughout the reign of Charles II. Moreover, the attempt to manufacture woollens had not met with success, the most notable one of the Duke of Ormonde at Clonmel proving a failure. The denial of the cattle trade and the limitations put on their commerce, however, necessarily compelled the Irish to turn to the raising of sheep. The possession of the wool was a constant temptation to manufacture woolen cloth, at least for domestic use. This manufacture of woollens had become extensive enough in 1697 to cause the jealousy of the English manufacturers. They were afraid that small beginnings might ultimately lead to larger undertakings for, as one man declared in 1698, although the export of woollens from Ireland was small it would grow, and whether it was small or large, it replaced what otherwise would have been made in England. For the preservation of the English woolen manufacturers it would be better to dump the Irish woollens into the sea than have them used in competition with England's industries.<sup>92</sup> The author<sup>93</sup> of these extreme opinions professed to be no enemy of Ireland; rather he thought it a very good plan to encourage any Irish industry that did not compete with a similar one in England. In this respect he suggested that it would be money well spent if England would lend £100,000 to the Irish to establish the manufacture of linen.<sup>94</sup>

The encouragement of linen manufactures in Ireland was not a new idea. The Earl of Strafford had been interested in it while he was Lord Lieutenant.<sup>95</sup> In 1665 the Irish Parliament had passed a law requiring the raising of a certain proportion of flax and hemp among the products of the island.<sup>96</sup> In 1670 the Treasury department in England recommended the enforcement of this act, and was in favor of encouraging the Irish in the making of linen.<sup>97</sup> Twenty years later, when there was a renewed interest in the manufacture of linen, a corporation, known as the "Governor and Assistants of the King and Queen's Corporation for the Linen Manufactures in Ireland," was established.<sup>98</sup> In order that Ireland might have workmen who were familiar with the manufacture of linen, the Lords Justices of Ireland recommended the policy of encouraging foreign Protestants to come into the kingdom.<sup>99</sup> In 1692 the Irish Parliament passed a law to that effect.<sup>100</sup>

In 1695-6 the English Parliament followed up this encouragement by passing a law which stated that, in view of the fact that England was continually exporting money for hemp, flax and linen productions, it would be desirable to have such articles supplied from Ireland. It was believed that Ireland could furnish them if foreign Protestants were sufficiently encouraged to come to Ireland. The law then provided that it should be legal to import into England, free of all customs whatsoever, hemp and flax or any product of them such as thread, yarns and linen.<sup>101</sup>

Thus, by the year 1697, the attitude of the English Parliament toward woollen and linen manufactures respectively was defined. One is not surprised, therefore, to learn of a bill introduced in the House of Commons in that year to prohibit the export of woollens from Ireland. Although it passed the House of Commons it did not become a law owing to the fact that Parliament was dissolved before it could pass the House of Lords. In the following year the attempt was resumed. The House of Lords, in an address to the king, on June 9, cited the fact that the woollen manufactures could be made much cheaper in Ireland than in England, which "makes your loyal subjects in this kingdom very apprehensive that the further growth of it may greatly prejudice the said manufacture here; by which the trade of this nation and the value of the lands will much decrease, and the numbers of your people be much lessened here; wherefore, we do most humbly beseech your most sacred majesty . . . to declare to all your subjects of Ireland, that the growth and increase of the woollen manufacture there, hath long, and still will be ever looked upon with great jealousy, by all your subjects of this kingdom: And if not timely remedied, may occasion very strict laws, totally to prohibit and suppress the same, and on the other hand, if they turn their industry and skill, to the settling and improving the linen manufacture, for which generally the lands of that kingdom are very proper, they shall receive all countenance, favour and protection from your royal influence, for the encouragement and promoting of the said linen manufacture, to all the advantage and profit, that kingdom can be capable of."<sup>102</sup>

The House of Commons expressed itself in much the same way, on the 30th of June, when it called the king's attention to the importance of the woollen manufacture in England.<sup>103</sup> To this representation the king answered, July 2, "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage the linen manufacture there; and to promote the Trade of England."<sup>104</sup>

The Woollen Act of 1699 was the result. To Americans it is known because it prohibited inter-colonial trade in the woollen manufactures of the colonies. The inspiration of the bill, however, was the situation in Ireland. That part of the act referring to Ireland declared that no person should transport to any country except England and Wales "any wool, Woollfells, Shortlings, Mortlings, Woollflocks, Worsted, Bay, or Woollen Yarne, Cloth, Serge, Bays, Kersies, Says, Frizes, Druggets, Cloth-Serges, Shalloons or any other

Drapery Stuffs or Woollen Manufactures whatsoever;" that when these goods were taken to England or Wales large bonds were to be given for their certain delivery; and that whenever the bonds were forfeited, because of disobedience, a part of the forfeitures was to be used in setting up linen manufactures in Ireland.<sup>105</sup>

It seems certain that the Irish accepted in the best of faith the declaration of the English that the linen manufactures should receive all possible encouragement.<sup>106</sup> In harmony with this policy the Lords Justices of Ireland, shortly after the passage of the Woollen Act, stated that the "linen and hempen manufactures will not only be encouraged, as consistent with the trade of England, but will render the trade of this kingdom both useful and necessary to England."<sup>107</sup> The Irish House of Commons also declared that it was ready to encourage the Irish linen and hempen manufactures and to protect England's woollen trade from injury in Ireland.<sup>108</sup> It then proceeded to throttle its own woollen industry by imposing additional export duties to the ones already in force which practically prohibited the exportation of Irish woollens from the kingdom.<sup>109</sup>

Thus was cemented the famous compact which has been the occasion for much spirited discussion since that time. There seems to be no doubt that the Irish expected to sacrifice their woollen manufactures for the encouragement of the linen manufactures. It seems almost as certain that the English Parliament had bound itself to encourage the Irish linen manufactures. Indeed it had distinctly declared that it would do everything to favor them, and the next law relating to the subject, passed in 1704, supports this view. After citing the act of 1663, which it will be remembered permitted victuals only to be carried directly from Ireland to the plantations, the new law recognized the duty of aiding the Irish linen manufactures by providing that in addition to victuals linen cloth of the manufacture of Ireland might be laden in Ireland, taken to the plantations and sold freely.<sup>110</sup> The Irish Parliament, also, proceeded on the assumption that it would be permitted and expected to do all that it could to establish the linen manufacture on a firm basis. In one law it was provided that no export duty should be laid on linens.<sup>111</sup> Another statute granted a bounty of five shillings per hhd. for the import of hemp seed, and 1 to 2d. per yard for the export of sail canvas.<sup>112</sup> Still others imposed additional duties on the importation of calicoes in order to encourage the weaving and consumption of linen cloth.<sup>113</sup>

It was not long, however, before the English began to pay some attention to their own linen manufactures. A law of 1713 laid a duty of 1d. per ell on all sail cloth and canvas imported into England from any other place than Ireland. One half of this duty was to be used as a bounty to encourage the exportation of English sail cloth from England.<sup>114</sup> Furthermore, it was provided in 1717 that the privilege recently extended to Ireland of exporting linen to the plantations should be continued only on condition that the



Irish repeal their duties and subsidies, amounting to 12 shillings per 100 ells, on English white and brown linens imported into Ireland. The Irish Parliament immediately acquiesced to this demand.<sup>115</sup>

In 1715 the Irish further encouraged their linen manufactures by granting an increased bounty on the export of sail canvas. This bounty was to be paid according to the following rates: canvas or sail cloth of 14d. value per yard and upwards, 4d. per yard; canvas or sail cloth valued at from 10 to 14d. per yard, 2d. per yard.<sup>116</sup> Due to this heavy bounty a considerable quantity of linen cloth began to find its way into England. In 1750 the English Parliament attempted to check this importation of Irish linen by providing that exactly the same duty should be charged on the importation of Irish linens into England as the Irish paid in bounties for the export of their linen, and that these duties should remain so long as the Irish bounties were paid.<sup>117</sup> This was the law which was so universally condemned in Ireland as being a breach of faith with the Irish people. Maintaining that the English had promised their encouragement to the Irish linen manufactures the Irish accused the English of depriving them of their part of the exchange which was an exclusive woollen trade for an exclusive linen trade.

Thus by 1750 it seemed as if the commercial and industrial condition of Ireland was well defined by the retention of only a few privileges. Mostly she was burdened with unenviable disabilities. By the act of 1663, as amended by the laws of 1695-6 and 1731, Irish ships enjoyed equality with English ships but enumerated articles from the plantations had to be landed in England before they could go to Ireland. The same law as amended by the act of 1704 permitted provisions and linen cloth to go directly from Ireland to the plantations; all other goods had to be loaded in England. The Irish could export their wool only to England. Although the export of woollen cloth to England was permitted it was really prohibited by the heavy export duty which the Irish themselves had levied. Finally England discouraged the Irish linen manufactures by the imposition in England of import duties, which offset the bounties granted by the Irish for the encouragement of that industry.

Such is the story of the various restrictions placed on Irish commerce and industries from time to time beginning with the reign of Charles II. Practically all of them were removed before the union of the two parliaments in 1800.<sup>118</sup> In general, however, the Irish labored under the disabilities of the various laws during most of the 18th Century. They were enforced with varying degrees of severity and success. No one can doubt, however, that the numerous economic restrictions were sufficiently onerous to contribute in large part to the national antipathy which Ireland has borne toward England for so many years.

<sup>1</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, Dublin, 1786. 13 Henry VIII C 2, and 28 Henry VIII C 17.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, 11 Elizabeth, session 3, C 10; 13 Elizabeth C 2.

<sup>3</sup> C. S. P. (Calendar of State Papers, Ireland, 1633-1647, p. 134, report by the Lord Deputy on the state of Ireland, June 21, 1636.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 246, Irish Parliament to the king (Circa, November 11, 1640).

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 328, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, August 2, 1641. The Privy Council, however ordered that wool, both coarse and fine, valued at 10 shillings per stone, should pay 6d. customs.

<sup>6</sup> Scobell, A Collection of Acts and Ordinances, 1654, C 38.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, 1656, C 9.

<sup>8</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1660-1662, p. 16, instructions to Lord Roberts (July), 1660.

<sup>9</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 12 Car. II, C 18, Sections 1, 3, 18. The author has placed the emphasis on the word "Ireland."

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, 14 Car II C 11.

<sup>11</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1661-1662, p. 449, proposal (July 30), 1662.

<sup>12</sup> Thurloe, A Collection of State Papers, London, 1742. Vol. 7: 848.

<sup>13</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1660-1662, p. 16, instructions to Lord Roberts (July), 1660. This was in accordance with a law of 1660 forbidding the transportation of wool from the king's dominions to foreign parts. Statutes of the Realm. 12 Car. II C 32.

<sup>14</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1660-1662, p. 305, the king to O'Nelle, April 10, 1661. There was also a grant to Sir Francis Hamilton to transport 700 packs of wool to foreign parts. *Ibid.*, p. 351, the king to the Lords Justices, June 11, 1661.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 385, (Nicholas) to the Lords Justices, July 23, 1661.

<sup>16</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1660-1662, p. 691, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, August 5, 1662.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 608, notes.

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 590, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, September 8, 1662. These men received their letters patent for the office, June 15, 1663. C. S. P., Domestic, 1673, p. 337, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, June 4, 1673.

<sup>19</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 12 Car. II C 4.

<sup>20</sup> Hist. MSS. Com. (Historical Manuscripts Commission) Reports. Ormonde MSS., N. S. (New Series), 3: 58, Coventry to Ormonde, June 20, 1663.

<sup>21</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1663-1665, p. 124, the Lord Lieutenant to Bennet, June 10, 1663.

<sup>22</sup> Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3: 72, Anglesey to Ormonde, August 15, 1663.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 74, Ormonde to Anglesey, August 15, 1663.

<sup>24</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 15 Car. II C 7.

<sup>25</sup> Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3: 72, Anglesey to Ormonde, August 15, 1663.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 81, Ormonde to Anglesey, August 22, 1663.

<sup>27</sup> Carte, Life of James, Duke of Ormonde, Oxford, 1851. Volume 4: 236-242.

<sup>28</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1664-1665, p. 187, memorandum, January, 1664/5.

<sup>29</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1663-1665, p. 626, merchants of Dublin to the Lord Deputy of Ireland (August 17), 1665.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 663, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, November 10, 1665; *ibid.*, 1666-1669, p. 96, the king to the Lord Lieutenant, April 19, 1666.

<sup>31</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, p. 90, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, April 18, 1666.



\* *Ibid.*, pp. 165-167, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, July 27, 1666.

\* *Ibid.*, p. 204, proclamation by the Lord Lieutenant and Council, September 4, 1666. Not only was the company strenuously opposed in Ireland, but it also had enemies so vigorous in England that it finally gave up the contest. The trade to the Canaries was again thrown open and the charter surrendered, September 27, 1667. C. S. P., Domestic, 1667, p. 486, royal proclamation, September 27, 1667.

\* C. S. P., Ireland, 1663-1665, p. 657, the Lord Lieutenant to Arlington, October 25, 1655.

\* Hist. MSS. Com. Report XI, part 5, p. 13.

\* C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 183-188, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, August 15, 1666.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1666-1667, p. 230, reasons offered to Parliament, October 2, 1666.

\* Hansard, Parliamentary History of England (William Cobbett, Editor). Volume 4: 341. On account of this remark the Earl of Ossory, eldest son of the Duke of Ormonde, challenged Buckingham to a duel, but the affair ended without their coming to blows.

\* A resume of the speeches in opposition to the bill may be found in C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 53-542, memorandum (Circa, 1667).

\* Statutes of the Realm, 18 & 19 Car. II C 2. The law was to be in force for seven years. It was strengthened the next year by providing heavier punishment for offenders. 19 & 20 Car. II C 12.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1666-1667, p. 485, royal proclamation, February 1, 1667.

\* C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 290-293, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, February 9, 1667; *ibid.*, pp. 303, 304, Anglesey *et al* to the king, February 17, 1666/7. The Duke of Ormonde had proposed this freedom of trade to European countries once before, especially in regard to the exportation of sheep and wool. C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 184, 185, the Lord Lieutenant and Council to the king, August 15, 1666.

\* A. P. C. (Acts of the Privy Council), Colonial Series, 1:428; C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, p. 328; the king to the Lord Lieutenant, March 23, 1667.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1667, p. 51, order in Council, April 24, 1667.

\* C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, pp. 351, 479, Warburton to Williamson, April 23, October 30, 1667.

\* *Ibid.*, p. 574, Rawdon to Conway, February 8, 1668.

\* *Ibid.*, pp. 609-611, proposals of the Council of Trade in Ireland, June 4, 1668.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks. (Calendar of Treasury Books), 3, part 1:463, Treasury minute, June 27, 1670.

\* Statutes of the Realm, 22 & 23 Car. II C 26 S 6. As originally passed by the House of Commons the act deprived the Irish of their only remaining trade in provisions to the West Indies which had been left to them in 1663. Due to the intervention of the planters of Barbadoes this was not agreed to by the House of Lords and so was omitted from the law. C. S. P., Colonial, 1669-1674, p. 369.

\* C. S. P., Ireland, 1666-1669, p. 761, instructions to Lord Robartes, July 23, 1669.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1671, p. 585, Rawdon to Conway, November 25, 1671.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks., 3, part 2:1049, Treasury minute, March 19, 1671/2.

\* *Ibid.*, p. 1280, Treasury instructions to William Kirby, July 15, 1672.

\* Camden Society Publications. Essex Papers, 1:36, Essex to Arlington, October 26, 1672. The Earl of Essex speaks as if all trade, including the profitable one in victuals and provisions, was denied by the act of 1670. It practically amounted to that.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks., 4:72, 73, Clifford to (the Lord Lieutenant), February 24, 1672/3.

\* Essex Papers, P1:54-56, Customs Commissioners to Clifford, February 10, 1672/3.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks., 4:126, royal warrant, April 30, 1673; Essex Papers, 1:36, Essex to Arlington, October 26, 1672.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks., 4:380, Osborne to Essex, 1673.

\* C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, p. 152, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686. In June, 1679, Sir George Downing appeared before the Board of Trade in England and complained of the abuse against the plantation acts which was being practiced in Ireland. Board of Trade Journals, 1675-1782, transcribed from the original manuscripts volumes in the Public Record Office of England for the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. London, 1898, volume 3:22-24.

\* C. S. P., Colonial, 1675-1676, p. 344, an account of Jamaica, January 28, 1676.

\* C. S. P., Colonial, 1677-1680, p. 487, Morgan to the Lords of Trade and Plantations, February 24, 1680.

\* A. P. C., Colonial, 1:663, 666; C. S. P., Domestic, 1676-1677, pp. 586, 587, reasons (May, 1676). About this time Sir William Petty declared that 2/7 of the "expense of the Irish in food is tobacco." The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty, edited by Charles H. Hull Cambridge, 1899, volume 1:191. In 1727 Arthur Dobbs stated that, in the years from 1719 to 1726, the average amount of tobacco imported into Ireland was 59,529 pounds, which was considerably larger than any other single import. Coal, sugar and hops were also large imports. Dobbs (Essay on Trade and Improvement of Ireland, Dublin, 1729, part 1, p. 56.

\* Smith, memoirs of wool, London, 1747, volume 1:247, Temple to Essex, 1673; *ibid.*, pp. 301-303, a gentleman in Ireland to his brother in England.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1671, p. 507, contents of wool exported from Ireland (September 29), 1671.

\* *Ibid.*, 1672, p. 337, the king to Essex, July 12, 1672; Essex papers, 1:275, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

\* Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., N. S., 3:347.

\* Essex Papers, 1:276, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

\* Cal. Treas. Bks., 4:632, Danby to the Lord Lieutenant, December 15, 1674.

\* Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Ormonde MSS., 2:268, 269. By the use in part of wool secured from Ireland the French developed their woollen manufactures to such an extent that large import duties, intended to be prohibitory, were levied on English woollens entering that country. As a means of retaliation the English Parliament passed the Poll Bill, which prohibited, for a period of three years, many French articles from entering England. Statute of the Realm. 29 & 30 Car. II C 1.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1672-1673, p. 283, the Lord Lieutenant to (Arlington), December 15, 1672.

\* *Ibid.*, 1672-1673, p. 170, Godolphin to Arlington, November 16, 1672.

\* C. S. P., Domestic, 1673-1675, pp. 166-167, reasons to Parliament, February, 1673/4; Essex Papers, 1:167, Aungier to Essex, January 27, 1673/4.

<sup>78</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1673-1675, pp. 169, 170, observations by W. (Petty), February, 1674). With one exception everybody in Ireland desired the repeal of the law. The Earl of Essex was afraid that, if the cattle trade once more became the dominant one in Ireland, his profits obtained by granting licenses for the export of wool would drop to £1500 or £2000 per annum as was the case previous to the cattle act. Under conditions then existing he received not less than £4000 annually from this source. Essex Papers, 1: 172, Essex to Harbord, February 14, 1673/4; *ibid.*, p. 275, memorandum concerning the exportation of wool from Ireland.

<sup>79</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1676-1677, p. 542, memorandum, February 10, 1677.

<sup>80</sup> Hist. MSS. Com. Report, 7, appendix, p. 468; *ibid.*, Report 8, appendix, p. 391.

<sup>81</sup> Statutes of the Realm. 32 Car. II C 2.

<sup>82</sup> A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 15, 16, 87, orders of the Privy Council, February 16, 1681, June 19, 1685; C. S. P., Colonial, 1681-1685, p. 58, Badcock to the Customs Commissioners, May 26, 1681; *ibid.*, 1685-1688, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686.

<sup>83</sup> Out of this attempt grew the quarrel between Lord Baltimore and Nicholas Badcock in Maryland. The latter insisted on collecting the duty, which the law of 1672 levied on tobacco not exported to England. When he refused to pay the duty he was reported to and reprimanded by the Board of Trade. Board of Trade Journals, 3: 317-320; C. S. P., Colonial, 1681-1685, p. 232, Baltimore to Jenkins, May 18, 1682.

<sup>84</sup> A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 60, order of the Privy Council, June 27, 1684.

<sup>85</sup> C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 152, 153, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686.

<sup>86</sup> *ibid.*, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686; Hist. MSS. Com. Reports, Egmont MSS., 2: 155.

<sup>87</sup> C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 152, 153, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, February 15, 1686.

<sup>88</sup> *ibid.*, pp. 160, 161, Clarendon to the Lord Treasurer, March 16, 1686.

<sup>89</sup> C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, pp. 166, 167, Customs Commissioners to the Lord Treasurer, March 29, 1686.

<sup>90</sup> *ibid.*, pp. 175-177, Irish Revenue Commissioners to the Lord Lieutenant, April 22, 1686.

<sup>91</sup> *ibid.*, pp. 187, 188, Customs Commissioners to the Lord Treasurer, May 12, 1686.

<sup>92</sup> Board of Trade Journals, 5: 280-282.

<sup>93</sup> C. S. P., Colonial, 1685-1688, p. 264, the case respecting the plantation trade of Ireland, October 23, 1686.

<sup>94</sup> In the troubled times succeeding William's ascension some attempts were made to carry goods directly to Ireland from the plantations, which the Privy Council attempted to stop by ordering several vessels to cruise off the coast of Maryland and Virginia. A. P. C., Colonial, 2: 272, order of the Privy Council, August 9, 1694.

<sup>95</sup> Statutes of the Realm. 7 & 8 William III C 22.

<sup>96</sup> C. S. P., Colonial, 1696-1697, pp. 480-482, Customs Commissioners to the Lords of the Treasury, May 11, 1697.

<sup>97</sup> Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 8-11.

<sup>98</sup> Supposedly a Mr. Clements, said Davenant. Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 7 (note).

<sup>99</sup> Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 15.

<sup>100</sup> C. S. P., Ireland, 1633-1647, p. 134, report by the Lord Deputy on the state of Ireland, June 21, 1636.

<sup>101</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 17 & 18 Car. II C 9.

<sup>102</sup> Cal. Treas. Bks., 3, part 1: 379, Treasury minute, March 5, 1689-70.

<sup>103</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1690-1691, p. 187, warrant to the Justices and Commissioners for Ireland, December 13, 1690.

<sup>104</sup> C. S. P., Domestic, 1690-1691, p. 217, speech of the Lords Justices of Ireland (1690).

<sup>105</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 4 William & Mary C 9.

<sup>106</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 7 & 8 William III C 39.

<sup>107</sup> Young, *A Tour in Ireland*, London, 1780, volume 2: 284-285.

<sup>108</sup> Commons Journals, 12: 338, June 30, 1698.

<sup>109</sup> *ibid.*, 12: 339, July 2, 1698. Two weeks later he instructed the Earl of Galway to "make effectual laws for the linen manufactures and discourage as far as possible the woollen." Smith, *Memoirs of Wool*, 2: 29. This decided attitude on the part of the two houses of the English Parliament was due in part to the conviction that something ought to be done to vindicate the English authority in Ireland. The particular event which had called forth this opinion was the publication in Dublin, February, 1698, by William Molyneux, of a book entitled, "The Case of Ireland being bound by Acts of Parliament in England Stated." After giving a history of Ireland's connection with England, the author maintained that the English Parliament had no right to pass laws for Ireland. Ireland, he declared, ought not to be treated as a colony. The Case of Ireland, pp. 104, 148. It seems probable that the book was inspired by the attempt in 1697 to prohibit the exportation of Irish woollens. At any rate it stirred up much hard feeling in Parliament, and the king promised to do all that he could to prevent such sedition. Commons Journals, 12: 337, 339, June 30, July 2, 1698.

<sup>110</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 10 William III C 16.

<sup>111</sup> Arthur Young said that this was not to be doubted for a moment. *Tour of Ireland*, 2: 289.

<sup>112</sup> *ibid.*, 2: 287.

<sup>113</sup> *ibid.*, 2: 288.

<sup>114</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 10 William III C 5. It was levied according to the following rates: broad cloth of 20s. value, 4 s.; serges, bays or any sort of new drapery of 20s. value, 2s.

<sup>115</sup> Statutes of the Realm, 3 & 4 Anne C 7.

<sup>116</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 4 Anne C 4. S 5.

<sup>117</sup> *ibid.*, 6 Anne C 9 SS 1, 3. These bounties were re-enacted by the comprehensive law of 19 George II C 6 SS 54, 56.

<sup>118</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 8 Anne C 2 and Anne C 3.

<sup>119</sup> 12 Anne C 16 (Pickering Edition). This law was passed for seven years but was continued from time to time.

<sup>120</sup> 3 George I C 21 (Pickering Edition). The Irish duties and subsidies are found in the Irish Statutes at Large. 14 & 15 Car. II C 8, 9. The repeal of the duties is in 4 George I C 6.

<sup>121</sup> Irish Statutes at Large, 2 George I C 13 S 3. This law was passed for ten years but was continued from time to time.

<sup>122</sup> 23 George II C 32 (Pickering Edition).

<sup>123</sup> 20 George III C 6 (Pickering Edition) permitted the exportation of Irish woollens to foreign countries. 20 George III C 10 opened the American, West Indian and African trade to Ireland as freely as it was to Great Britain. 20 George III C 18 opened the Levant trade to Ireland. 6 George IV C 105 S 25 repealed the cattle act of 1680.

# History in the Junior and Senior High School

REPORT OF CONFERENCE HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, APRIL 20, 1922

In the spring of 1922 a conference of history teachers was held at the University of Pennsylvania in connection with "Schoolmen's Week," at which the position of history in the curricula of senior and junior high schools was discussed. The aim of the conference was to ascertain the point of view of school administrators rather than that of historians or history teachers. In the following pages more or less extensive reports are given of the formal papers presented at the meeting.—EDITOR'S NOTE.

## SHOULD EUROPEAN HISTORY BE TAUGHT IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

*By Frederic P. Woellner, Columbia University.*

The following outline is presented for the consideration of those who are desirous of developing a world consciousness in the early adolescent mind, through the study of European History. It may be considered a brief for the affirmative side of the question, Should European History Be Taught in the Junior High School?

1. The majority of children leave school before they are sixteen years of age. If any history beyond that of their own country is to be taught to the majority of our future citizens, it must be offered before the great exodus from our schools takes place. The slight mention of "European Backgrounds to American History" in the lower grades is not sufficient. A thorough course must be offered in the Junior High School.

2. No one can understand the History of the United States without knowing about the history of the leading states of Europe. No one can fully appreciate the present crisis which the nations are facing, without knowing something of their history. No one can apprehend the imminent issues before the world powers without having a grasp of the development of an ever-widening co-operative economy. For the past, present and future, Americans need to know more history beyond that of their own country.

3. The Social Sciences are everywhere gaining a place in the curriculum of the Junior High School. Without an intelligent grasp of history, these sciences are little more than an emotion.

These sciences should be considered as a challenge to European History to readjust itself to meet the vital needs of the present. They can hardly be more than that to those who know the Junior High School.

4. Through European History one may more fully realize the objectives of history than through a more limited study of one country's past. These objectives are generally listed as follows:

Recreation: for leisure as literature  
 Perspective: for proper time relationships  
 Use: for aid in solving problems

Shock: for freeing one from the narrow confines of the here and now  
 Convention: for keeping one "up-to-date"  
 Instinct: for satisfying a definite curiosity  
 Values: for knowing the constants in the drama of man,—love, justice, purity, etc.

5. If one were to list the subjects suitable for early adolescents, European History as it might be organized and taught would be near the top. It should be required or made an elective with its nearest competitors.

6. Citizenship is a multiform proposition. The number, variety and intensity of co-operative organizations is constantly increasing. An ever expanding economy is demanding a shifting of emphasis from the smaller to the larger groups. The progressive citizen is required to study his obligations to the local community, the state, the section, the nation, the continent and the world. As time goes on, his provincialism must lessen. He must keep pace with the expanding economy. No subject can better help him make the progressive adaptation that such economy demands, than European or better, world history.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY NOT IN THE NINTH YEAR.

*By James M. Glass, Director of Junior High Schools, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction.*

The question of whether European History should be required in the ninth year is submitted for our consideration in this paper. This discussion will be restricted to the ninth year as it concerns the last year of the junior high school and not as it concerns the first year of a four-year high school. Further, the question may be restricted to a discussion of the practicability of offering European History in the ninth year of the junior high school in the light of the present program of Social Studies as organized for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years.

The present course of study in social studies [in Pennsylvania] has been organized in accord with the accepted objectives of the junior high school. Social studies are second to no other major branch of study in the contributions made to the realization of the primary purposes of the junior high school. It, therefore, would seriously compromise the objectives of the junior high school, if any step were taken materially to modify the course of study in general social science. It will be pertinent to consider the primary purposes of the junior high school to which social studies make a contribution not comparable with any other major branch of study. To this end the first two of the five purposes of the junior high school as stated by Briggs will summarize in part the fundamental aims in accord with which each course of study should be constructed in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years.

The first purpose of the junior high school, "to continue common integrating education," finds expression, in largest measure, in the social studies. It must be, therefore, the responsibility of this major branch of the program of studies to interpret American History in its social, community, vocational, and economic bearings upon the youth, many of whom are soon to pass from junior to adult American citizenship. Before the adolescent youth continues his educational career or enters society as a wage-earner, his conscience must be awakened to the need of social co-operation for the upbuilding and maintenance of the society in which he is to live.

The second purpose of the junior high school is "to ascertain and reasonably to satisfy pupils' important immediate and assured future needs." Junior citizenship is more than a preparation for adult citizenship; it is an actual experience with its own immediate needs which must be ascertained and satisfied if the assured needs of American citizenship are to be comprehended and fulfilled. The present is the forerunner of the future. As is the youth, so will be the man. It is the mission of social studies, as one medium of junior high school training, so to direct the activities of adolescent pupils in the present task of ascertaining and satisfying their immediate needs as junior citizens that through this training the assured future needs of adult citizenship may be intelligently comprehended and realized. Junior citizenship and adult citizenship must sustain the relationship of cause and effect.

There must be, therefore, in the junior high school program of studies a program of school activities in which adolescents find "the special field for their activities as junior citizens." They must be trained under control and guidance to live as junior citizens of their school community. It must be the no uncertain responsibility of the teachers of social studies to interpret the social and civic experiences of adolescents in the school community as steps of progressive development in citizenship training. Junior high school general social science must find its counterpart in the applied social science of society itself. The application must be made by the teacher of social studies. School activities and junior citizenship in a junior high school are the means ready at hand for the teacher of American history and community civics to interpret the lessons of the classroom. The teacher of social studies who fails to interpret the significance and parallel of junior citizenship as the counterpart of both past and future American history, has lost a rich opportunity to motivate and mould the citizenship of tomorrow. In other words such a teacher has failed at the point of her greatest potential service to society, which has a right to demand this service.

United States History in the junior high school course of Social Studies is based upon a background of all history. So far, therefore, as European History is the setting of American History, it deserves and has a place in the course of study. It remains only to say, rather arbitrarily, that the junior high school so far has not found a time allotment for social

studies which will permit both social science and European History in its ninth year. Since there is not time for each as a separate course, the junior high school has of the alternatives selected social science.

### HISTORY AS A PREPARATION FOR CITIZENSHIP.

*By W. D. Lewis, Deputy Superintendent, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction.*

The function of the public school is to train our young people for effective and helpful participation in our governmental and social order. The new occasions of the present crisis teach as never before the new duty of reorganizing the whole program of the secondary school, of determining its required work by the essential purpose of the school, and of defining the content of the required subjects by their function of training citizens of our social, industrial, and political democracy.

It is the province of the history course in the high school to prepare our young citizens to read the newspapers and magazines, and to participate in the discussion of political, social, and economic problems, to think, and to vote. History can seldom teach them what to think on any specific problem; it can and should teach them to think. It can prepare for a study of economics, sociology, political science, social psychology, and social evolution. It should give an understanding of the fact that these questions are of personal rather than of merely academic concern, and thus insure interested and vigorous participation in the varied activities of citizenship.

The history of the high school should teach us how we have arrived at our present stage of civilization. Whence come the million problems of social co-operation and social control that have brought new evils to displace the old, and that have necessitated unprecedented complexities in our governmental and social co-operation. To illustrate: The steam engine has revolutionized industry once and electricity is transforming it again. "As Robert Owen pointed out, our increased capacity of production through machinery is equivalent to vastly increasing the number of workers in the world without any increase of the number of persons to be cared for." (Robinson, *New History*, page 125.) Aided by improved sanitation and control of diseases, population, especially in the cities, has multiplied beyond precedent. This has thrown a disproportionate burden upon agriculture. In America an unoccupied continent and the improvement in farm machinery have relieved the pressure. England, lacking these advantages, must import perhaps two-thirds of her foods. Germany, seeing a crisis a few decades ahead, precipitates a world war. Russia, lacking a sane organized government, meets this crisis with an upheaval and a collapse of industry and agriculture, and starves.

All these and a hundred other problems must now be solved by an increasingly democratic world in which it is necessary not only for the seers and

leaders to devise remedies, but also—what is quite as difficult—to interpret the problems in such concrete terms as to command the support of the court of final authority—the great democratic masses. We do not know what the problems of tomorrow will be. We have every reason to believe that there will be problems, and that they will differ from those of today. That those who must solve them shall know how they have arisen, that they shall attack them with as nearly a perfect comprehension of the past as possible, is the problem of history instruction in the high school.

The plans of the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania involve the publication of courses of study in the various subjects which shall be always tentative—always in process of revision as improvements shall be worked out in the great laboratory of the schools of the State. The outline for European history was prepared by the Social Studies Committee under the direction of Dr. J. Lynn Barnard. The present outline is the work of Mr. D. M. Melchior and M. Morris Wolf, of Girard College.

#### AIMS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

Proper recognition has not been accorded European history in secondary education, chiefly because of a failure properly to evaluate the principles and aims of history teaching. Four of these ends are especially significant for a high school course in European history.

##### 1. To understand the present

The course in history must be sufficiently inclusive and be so taught that the student becomes distinctly aware that our institutions and ideals have been handed down to us and that certain major forces were dominant in making the present. For the high school pupil there is little use in understanding the past except to explain the present.

Two widely accepted and closely related concepts are very useful in assisting the student to understand the world of today. One of them is the concept of the continuity of history. Human beings tend to do this year as they did last. Yesterday's thought and action explains the civilization of today. The student begins to understand the present when he perceives not that we have "arrived," but that we are still "on our way." He should begin to see, too, that peoples and nations are interdependent, chronologically and synchronously. It is only partly true to speak of Oriental history, or of ancient history, or of the history of America, or of Germany. Moreover imperialism did not begin or end with Rome; autocracy did not begin, nor (shall we say) end with Germany; Grecian history is not complete without Egypt, Crete, and Persia; the Church is more than the Vatican, Sarajevo does not explain the World War.

Furthermore in order to understand the present it is vital that the pupil come to appreciate the great part played by science, literature, political philosophy, the yearnings for democracy, agriculture, humanitarianism, invention, and industry in the evolution of modern society. The cultivation of such an aim will subordinate needless political detail.

##### 2. To develop powers of discrimination and independent judgment.

What is good and what is bad in the present radical movement throughout the world? Is a league of nations bound to come? What is the solution of the Far Eastern situation? Is democracy justifying itself?

A clear recognition of these two fundamental ends or aims in secondary school history, set forth above, makes patent, the weakness of those history courses in high schools which limit the field to Europe since 1750. We are all too prone to deprecate that which is not ultra-modern. We are all too forgetful that the institutions which are the bulwark of modern society have their origins in the centuries, yes, the millenniums, of the past. The family, morality, religion, the state, law, commerce, domestication of animals and plants (how little has man added in 2000 years) astronomy, mathematics, art, and literature—these are the heritages of the ages. But how can we develop in the minds of our youth respect and admiration for this heritage, and for man's tremendous struggle in its acquisition, if we tell them that all the history they need to know has happened since 1750? It is beside the point to say that the pupil will have studied the earlier history in the lower grades in a preliminary survey of our ancestors in Europe, and besides, that much of this can be learned in the English course. Such suggestions are unconvincing. Like the teacher, the adolescent pupil can come to appreciate man's struggle and man's heritage only by direct study, and not by reminders or as a by-product of English literature.

Moreover, many events and movements which seem so momentous because they are so near to us shrivel perceptibly when compared with epoch-making achievements of early man. Professor Finney has well pointed out that if we teach only the period since 1750 we are apt to stress too much the economic and political phases of history. Not only industry, transportation, agriculture, invention, but also religion, order, the family, the drama, scientific discovery, art, and philosophy were hoary with age when the Industrial Revolution dawned, and today they are living institutions that cannot be ignored.

##### 3. To cultivate a passion for orderly advancement.

As a corollary of the first aim should come the desire to help build the new out of the old, with sturdy stride, but not too fast. The prophetic phrase of Felix Adler becomes a natural watchword: If we do not have more rapid evolution we shall have rabid revolution.

It is the unique function of history to help us understand the present. In addition, the content of history is remarkably fit for developing judgment and a passion for orderly advance.

##### 4. To prepare the mass of folk for the proper use of leisure.

History should develop a larger appreciation of the art, music, and literature that past and present civilizations offer, in other words, should promote cultural democracy.

## THE PLACE OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

*Parke Schoch, Principal of West Philadelphia High School for Girls.*

What one thinks about history or any other subject of the high school curriculum, is conditioned upon certain fundamentals of program building. First, the aims of the high school must be determined; second, the length of day, with number and length of periods; third, the capacities of pupils.

As to the aims, we shall likely all agree with those stated in Bulletin 85, 1918, Bureau of Education, on the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," with which we are all familiar.

The school day in the ninth year of the junior high school should consist of six 60-minute periods. This will provide time for placing in the program four major studies, each occurring every day, divided between constants and electives, in proportion to suit the varying needs of the pupils. The remaining ten periods of the week should be divided among such subjects and interests as physical education, music, art, practical arts, guidance and school activities. nations bound to come? What is the solution of the make possible supervised study as a necessary part of each period, and will admit of all study, practically, being done within the school hours.

Assuming that general science has been taken by all pupils in the eighth year, history should be one of the required subjects of the ninth year. This should not be European history, however, but rather a world type of history, so that a broad foundation may be laid for such further history study as may be taken later on.

In the tenth year of the senior high school the only required study subject should be English language. European history should be offered as an optional subject, along with mathematics, foreign language, science, and certain special and vocational subjects.

A word at this point about the capacities of pupils,

as this has a bearing on the inclusion or exclusion of European history in the tenth year as a required subject. My observation leads me to advocate strongly a four major subject program for the ninth and tenth years. I do this because of the increasingly low average of capacity of the pupils now coming into the high school. This is accounted for, first, by the operation of the compulsory education laws, which forces into the ninth and tenth grades all kinds of children, many with low intelligence and poor capabilities, and it seems to me we should be able to retain more of them and to do more for them by concentrating their thought and effort upon four fields of study, each occurring every day, rather than by dissipating their energies over five subjects, each occurring four times a week. This point of view necessitates the restriction of the subjects to be taken to four in number each year, and enforces the choice that involves necessarily the placing of history among the electives after the ninth year except American history. One of these four subjects in the cases of more than half the pupils should be a vocational subject, because that percentage of ninth and tenth year pupils will be found in the commercial and mechanical courses, and they are entitled to some subject each year that will prepare them for self-support.

By the end of the tenth year the various processes of elimination have been so effective that less than 50 per cent of those entering in the ninth year remain. We then have a relatively selected group, and we may in the eleventh and twelfth years operate profitably a five major subject program. This will provide not only for compulsory American history in the eleventh year, but also for further social study in the twelfth, probably problems of democracy, for the great mass of the pupils. The rigid requirements of certain of the colleges may still make it necessary occasionally to substitute some other subject for the twelfth year social study, at least until this subject is credited by the colleges.

## A Library for History Teachers

Perhaps for no other subject in the school curriculum is there such a body of information and suggestions on teaching methods as is to be found in the twelve volumes *The History Teacher's Magazine* and its successor

### THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

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# Report on History Textbooks used in the Public Schools of New York City

**EDITOR'S NOTE.**—Nation-wide interest was attracted to the charges made in the fall of 1920 against certain history textbooks used in New York schools. These charges were submitted by Superintendent Ettinger to a special committee of principals and teachers. The following extracts are taken from the report of this committee. No quotations are given concerning individual textbooks, nor will space allow the inclusion of extracts from the monographic studies in which members of the committee reviewed in detail the specific charges against the textbooks.

## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

March 27, 1922.

DR. WILLIAM L. ETTINGER,

*Chairman, Board of Superintendents.*

DEAR SIR:

In October, 1920, a letter attacking the histories in use in the public schools of New York City was referred by you to your Committee on Studies and Textbooks for consideration and report.

At your suggestion specific data were asked for to support the general statements made.

After repeated conferences a formal series of charges in writing, containing particulars desired, was filed with your Committee in April, 1921.

These charges and specifications were immediately submitted to you for consideration with the recommendation that the publishers and the authors of the books in question have full and fair opportunity for reply.

Thereupon, with your approval, the parties involved were notified, and late in September, 1921, all the replies were on file.

These replies were duly considered by you with the conclusion that it would be wise to lay the whole matter before a committee of representative school-room workers for detailed consideration and close investigation.

Early in October, 1921, this Committee was appointed, on the recommendation of your Committee on Studies and Textbooks, with the following instructions:

1. To establish a set of fundamental principles and reasonable standards for the writing of textbooks on history intended for use in our public schools.
2. To consider in detail the charges made and the replies thereto and, subject to the laws of evidence, to sustain or deny each separate charge by a written opinion setting forth clearly the reasons for the action.
3. To invite open public criticism to the end that our list might, if necessary, be purged of even the slightest taint of impropriety, propaganda, or unpatriotic sentiment.

The Committee consisted of the following-named persons:

EDWARD MANDEL, *Chairman*, District Superintendent, Queens

HAROLD G. CAMPBELL, Principal, Flushing H. S., Queens

MRS. RUFINA A. CARLS, Principal, P. S. 42, Manhattan

AUSTIN G. CLARK, Teacher, Textile H. S., Manhattan

MARY CONLON, Principal, P. S. 80, Bronx

AGNES CRAIG, Teacher, P. S. 8, Bronx

CLYDE R. JEFFORDS, Teacher, Newtown H. S., Queens

KATHERINE KAVANAGH, Asst. to Principal, P. S. 46, Brooklyn

FREDERICK J. MASON, Teacher, P. S. 11, Queens

THOMAS McTIERNAN, Teacher, DeWitt Clinton H. S., Manhattan

ADOLPH MISCHLICH, Teacher, P. S. 97, Manhattan

LUCILLE NICOL, Principal, P. S. 61, Brooklyn

MRS. JOSEPHINE L. NORDMAN, Principal, P. S. 14, Queens

FREDERICK H. PAINE, Teacher, Eastern District H. S., Brooklyn

HARRY B. PENHOLLOW, Teacher, DeWitt Clinton H. S., Manhattan

BRYAN REILLY, Principal, P. S. 157, Brooklyn

FREDERICK J. REILLY, Principal, P. S. 33, Bronx

ANNA SHORT, Principal, P. S. 28, Manhattan

FLOWDEN STEVENS, Principal, P. S. 44, Bronx

HOWARD M. TRACY, Teacher, Curtis H. S., Richmond

FREDERICK WHITE, Teacher, Morris H. S., Bronx

EDGAR DULES SHIMER, *Chairman*,  
Committee on Studies and Textbooks.

## Report on General Principles and Special Aims

In determining the appropriateness of the selection of material for a public school textbook, the following considerations should be carefully weighed:

Under the compulsory education law children of school age must attend upon either public or private instruction. The parent financially able, may select for his children a private school or a private tutor and thereby determine the nature of the instruction they shall receive, the books they shall use, the character of the teachers who shall instruct them; and the opinions political, social, religious or otherwise which these teachers shall hold. But the parent whose children attend public school has no voice in the disposition of these matters of such vital and far-reaching consequences to the future of his children—his most precious possessions. These matters are determined for him by the Board of Education. Under such circumstances, the parent must be assured beyond all question that the facts taught and the sentiments expressed in the schools are in full accord with the aims and ideals of the public school system. These aims and ideals have been expressed by the Commissioner of Education of the State of New York in language peculiarly apt and appropriate for all time. He wrote:



"A teacher in a public school system . . . must come out in the open and cheerfully and unhesitatingly stand up and make known to the entire community in which he is employed that he is giving his unquestioned support to the government.

"The public schools of any country should be the expression of that country's ideals, the purpose of its institutions and its philosophy of life and government. The schools of America should be an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government.

"There has not been a time in the history of the country when the public schools should be engaged more persistently, scientifically, and patriotically in teaching the fundamental principles of America's philosophy of life and government than at the present time. A person who does not, without reservation, utilize all his intellectual powers and exert all his influence as a teacher in the public schools to make such schools an effective and efficient agency in the accomplishment of this great function of a school system is not a suitable person to be charged with the duties of the sacred office of teacher. A teacher who is unwilling to follow this course fails to live up to his duty as teacher and fails utterly to support the government.

"If a teacher cannot give unquestioned support to the country his place is not in the school. I will not say where it is, but of all places in the world he should not be in the school as the representative of his country."

The textbook is a teacher. It must be judged by the standards applicable to the teacher. A textbook which fails to give unquestioning support to the aims and ideals of our public school system has no place in the public school.

#### GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The formulation of aims and standards by the Commissioner of Education denies, by necessary implication, that the writer of a textbook for use in the public schools has absolute freedom in the selection or in the interpretation of historical material. Predetermined aims and standards predetermine selection and interpretation.

The textbook must contain no statement in derogation or in disparagement of the achievements of American heroes. It must not question the sincerity of the aims and purposes of the founders of the Republic or of those who have guided its destinies.

The textbook must contain no material which tends to arouse political, racial, or religious controversy, misunderstanding or hatred.

The textbook must contain no material tending to arouse misunderstanding or hatred between the United States and any other nation.

The selection of material must be restricted to that which contributes most directly and essentially to the attainment of the legitimate objectives of the public school system as formulated by the State Commissioner of Education.

*The writer must be prepared at all times to "come out in the open and cheerfully and unhesitatingly stand up and make known to the entire community," the aims and the ideals, the purposes and the motives, which actuated him in the selection of his material and in his interpretation thereof.*

#### SPECIFIC AIMS

1. To acquaint the pupils with the basic facts and movements, political, industrial, and social, of American history.

2. To emphasize the principles and motives that were of greatest influence in the formation and development of our government.

3. To establish ideals of patriotic and civic duty.

4. To awaken in the pupil a desire to emulate all praiseworthy endeavor.

5. To emphasize the importance of weighing permissible evidence in forming judgments.

6. To present the ethical and moral principles exemplified in the lives of patriotic leaders.

7. To inspire in the pupil an appreciation of the hardships endured and the sacrifices made in establishing and defending American ideals.

8. To develop in the pupil a love for American institutions and the determination to maintain and defend them.

9. To bring the light of reason and experience to bear on radical or alien theories of economic and political systems.

10. To enable the pupil to interpret the present in terms of the past and to view intelligently the functions and the value of existing institutions.

#### DISCUSSION OF GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND SPECIAL AIMS

In order to give a clearer and more definite idea of the scope and intent of the general principles and special aims formulated by the Committee we submit herewith a discussion of said general principles and special aims.

#### A

THE PRIMARY PROBLEM IN WRITING A HISTORY TEXTBOOK IS PROPRIETY OF SELECTION OF MATERIAL

In his "Teaching of History" Professor Johnson says: "History is everything that ever happened."

Dean Russell says: "The materials of history have been in the making by every person born into the world from Adam down."

In its broadest sense therefore history embraces every occurrence, significant or insignificant.

As the pages of a textbook are limited, no material should be used unless it is essential and of the highest educational value. The child's time must not be taken up with facts which do not measure up to this standard.

#### B.

THE TEXTBOOK WRITER IS NOT A HISTORIAN

Strictly speaking the textbook writer is not a historian. The historian writes for the open market. He has the privilege of selecting and organizing his material in accordance with his own views. He may be an impartial writer or he may be a partisan. The textbook writer has not this freedom. He is subject to the limitations imposed upon the teacher.

The function of the textbook writer is to furnish the teacher with the material the latter needs to carry out the aims and purposes set by the course of study. As Dean Russell says:

"Selection of material for a course in history becomes a professional task, quite as important as the task of supplying the material itself. The one is the task of the professional teacher, the other of the professional historian."

It is for the teacher to determine what material is

needed. It is for the textbook writer to supply it. Unfortunately, an examination of the prefaces in various textbooks shows that some textbook writers do not take this view.

From these prefaces, it appears that the writers have not written to meet the needs of any particular course of study or combination of courses.

Objection was made to each of these prefaces on the ground that the writer "believes a textbook may be used to influence our international relations."

We believe that a textbook writer who seeks to influence our international relations is a propagandist. Under our constitution it is for the federal government, in the first instance, to determine what our foreign relations shall be. The children in attendance in our public schools must not be used directly or indirectly to influence official action in such matters.

### C

#### THE BURDEN OF PROOF RESTS UPON HIM WHO MAKES A DEROGATORY STATEMENT

As a rule derogatory statements have little or no educational value. They instinctively arouse resentment. Only when a man has been guilty of an act of great moral turpitude is a discussion of his act likely to lead to beneficial consequences. Nero's cruelty and Arnold's treason are illustrations.

He that alleges the commission of a wrongful act assumes the burden of proof. The evidence, in substantiation, must be clear and convincing, and the more so, when it affects the reputation of a national hero. The graver the consequences of a charge, the higher the station of the person assailed, the greater should be the care exercised in the making of a charge.

A derogatory statement partakes of the nature of a libel. A libel has been defined as:

"A publication by writing, printing, picture, effigy, sign, or otherwise, which exposes any living person or the memory of a deceased person, to contempt or ridicule. For example, to charge a member of Congress that he is a misrepresentative in Congress, and a groveling office-seeker, is libelous, whether made concerning the living or the dead." (*Thomas vs. Crowell*, 7 Johns, 264; *Ryckman vs. Delevan*, 25 Wend., 113; *Miller vs. Donovan*, 16 Misc., 433.)

It is not difficult to find statements in some of the textbooks which come within the above rule.

Unless therefore, the facts are true (where the charge rests upon the facts) or unless the inferences (where the charge rests upon inferences) are such as reasonable minds must draw, the author is not justified in making a derogatory statement.

If there is doubt as to the truthfulness of the facts or if reasonable minds may draw different inferences from the facts, the charge is not sustained by clear and convincing evidence. The person whose reputation is assailed is entitled to the benefit of the doubt.

In order to avoid any misapprehension we desire to state at this point that even if the derogatory statement is true, it should not be made unless essential, necessary and of high educational value.

### D

#### PROBABLE REASON FOR THE PRESENCE OF MUCH OF THE MATERIAL TO WHICH OBJECTIONS HAVE BEEN MADE.

Probably the factor principally responsible for the

presence of objectionable material in the textbooks under investigation is that the writers have not divided their material into topic-units, and have not formulated aims, sufficiently extensive in scope to permit marshalling the facts in due subordination. There should be a few large topics and aims, rather than many.

The selection of material, and the organization of topics and aims are fixed by certain well-known limitations. Among these, the chief are:

1. The majority of the pupils in the elementary grades will never attend upon higher instruction.
2. Pupils in the elementary grades are interested in broad, powerful descriptions—vivid and colorful.
3. Pupils in the elementary grades are not sufficiently developed mentally to permit of meticulous exactness, fine-spun differentiations or philosophic analyses.

It is sufficient to acquaint the pupil with the salient and essential facts. "The facts which will lead him to understand that liberty is a priceless jewel; that he should be proud of his country; and that he should yield obedience to constituted authority."

The aim is expressed in the "Estimate of 8B Pupils' Attainments," prescribed by the New York City Board of Education, as follows:

"A knowledge of the principal events in the history of the United States and of related European history as laid down in the elementary course of study; and an elementary understanding of the organization and workings of the federal, the state and the municipal government."

In the light of the foregoing it is manifest that many, if not all of the statements in connection with the Revolutionary War and of the War of 1812, to which objection was made, could readily be eliminated from the textbooks under investigation.

What should be the aim in teaching the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812?

#### *The Revolutionary War*

The story of the Revolution can be told under about six topic-units. Throughout, however, there should be but one aim: to impress upon the pupils the sublime spectacle of thirteen weak colonies spread along fifteen hundred miles of sea coast poorly equipped and poorly disciplined giving battle to the strongest military and naval power in the world. In addition the Colonists were surrounded by hostile Indians and in their midst was a large body of Tories working at times openly, at times secretly, but, at all times, against them.

In telling this story what matters whether the Revolutionary War was really a war of secession! What matters whether King George III or his ministers were mainly responsible for the war! So far as a pupil in the elementary grades is concerned these are academic questions. What the pupil needs to know is this: The Colonists believed themselves to be oppressed, and so believing, they stood ready to sacrifice all in the cause of freedom. The pupil must be taught that if liberty is to continue "to dwell in

our midst" he must be prepared, should occasion arise, to make similar sacrifices.

There is no necessity for harrowing tales or embittered words. Things were done by Englishmen, and things were done by Americans, which should not have been done. Such acts occur in every great struggle. There is so much glory for us in the Revolutionary War that there should be no desire to harbor the memory of mistakes.

Everything essential is accomplished when it is made plain to the pupils: that the Colonists had just grievances; that they rebelled because they could obtain no redress; that they were inspired by a fierce love of liberty; that they counted neither the cost nor the odds against them; that the dominating spirit of the Revolution is found in the words of Nathan Hale: "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

The pupil should be inspired by vivid and glowing pictures of the sacrifices made by the patriots, the things they did and the things they said. In the words of Abbe Reynald:

"With what grandeur, with what enthusiasm, should I not speak of those generous men who erected this grand edifice by their patience, their wisdom and their courage, HANCOCK, FRANKLIN, ADAMS! Posterity shall know them all. Their honored names shall be transmitted to it by a happier pen than mine. Brass and marble shall show them to remotest ages. In beholding them shall the friend of freedom feel his heart palpitate with joy, feel his eyes float in delicious tears. Under the bust of one of them has been written, 'He wrested thunder from the heaven and the sceptre from tyrants.' Of the last words of this eulogy shall the whole of them partake."

#### *Second War With England*

The objections to the accounts of the War of 1812 are mainly to the effect that the writers have taken a biased and partisan attitude. If the writer will bear in mind that the sectional differences which existed in this country with reference to the War of 1812 were the natural differences and misunderstandings which arise when two opposing tendencies are being harmonized he will refrain from such characterizations as "War Hawks," or from cynical, sarcastic or sneering remarks concerning the prosecution of the war. He will understand that it was natural and under the circumstances inevitable that in the crisis which confronted the country the leadership should fall upon Clay, a man from the West, who was free from the traditions of the Revolutionary period. The disagreements between the Peace Party and the War Party were fundamentally due to the fact that "the spirit of individualism" was still strong, particularly in the New England States.

As Mace says in "Method in History":

"This approach goes on more rapidly than ever before, for the need of each for the other (meaning nationality and democracy) is more continuous and pressing. The above growth was checked and limited by the rise of a counter movement mainly confined to New England and the Middle States. This anti-national sentiment connected itself with sympathy for England, and thus brought upon itself the odium of being unpatriotic."

E

EMASCULATED ACCOUNTS OF WARS IN ORDER TO ENCOURAGE PEACE

Objection has been made to the treatment in some

of the textbooks of the wars in which we have been engaged. The objections are to the effect that the accounts are emasculated. In reply it is strenuously urged that "the surest way to end war, is to sing the praises of peace and to say little of war and the heroes of war."

We are all committed to the proposition that it is our duty to co-operate to the fullest extent to help put an end to warfare.

President Harding says:

"If I catch the conscience of America we'll lead the world to outlaw war."

Lloyd George says:

"Above all, making sure that war shall henceforth be declared to be a crime punishable by the laws of nations."

Marshal Foch says:

"War in itself and for itself is the greatest crime in the world, and the glory of victory pursued for itself is a crime. This world is made for peace and for work in peace time. The first duty is to work for people, not to fight."

It has been said that:

"War is a crime, it is wholesale murder, it is a substitute for justice, reason, civilization and world safety."

We join unreservedly in condemnation of war when waged for aggrandizement—in defiance of the principles of justice and of equity. The Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 were not such wars. An emasculated account of these wars cannot be defended.

War in defence of freedom or in vindication of righteousness, justice and equity should be vividly portrayed, and the praises of its heroes should be joyously sung. Thus only can we raise a citizenry willing to die for the country.

F

#### OUR HEROES

Objection has been made that some of the textbooks contain statements in derogation of our national heroes. In reply it has been urged that the statements are true, and that attention should be called to the weaknesses of our heroes or we will esteem them too highly.

Truth is no defense to the charge of impropriety. "The Aristidean sense of justice" which would spread upon the pages of a textbook the weaknesses of our heroes to assure itself that our children will not entertain for them a gratitude too deep or a veneration too exalted is a sentiment which may find a place and an audience somewhere. That place must not be the public school; that audience must not be the children in attendance.

The assurance that posterity will hold our heroes in grateful remembrance is one of the most powerful incentives to heroic achievement. To preserve unsullied the name and fame of those who have battled that we might enjoy the blessings of liberty, is a solemn and sacred obligation. Hero worship may have its faults. In comparison with the vice of ingratitude, they are negligible.

Superintendent of Schools William L. Ettinger has said:

"Regard for historical accuracy does not require that elementary histories contain statements with regard to the foibles or weaknesses of any of the great historical

figures which have always been the subject of admiration and reverence. We should not direct the attention of immature minds to the mistakes, infirmities, or peccadilloes of historical characters, because their greatness rather than their failings enabled them to be creative forces in our national life."

We are not interested in the petty weaknesses of our heroes. We are interested in those sterling qualities of mind and heart which made their heroism possible.

"Children live and suffer with their heroes. They love to imitate the great and noble characters with whom they are brought in contact. They awaken in them the spirit of emulation." (McMurray.)

To call the pupil's attention to the weaknesses of our heroes is not only of doubtful educational value but it may result in harmful consequences. The pupil may well reason that it is safe to indulge in such lapses as they do not interfere with success.

In the absence of reasons which unquestionably justify his doing so, the textbook writer must not spread upon the pages of his book the shortcomings of our heroes. We prefer to listen rather to the words of President Harding, Abraham Lincoln and Pericles.

President Harding says:

"You and your associates are going to voice the last testimony of love and affection from living comrades for their dead. You may be very sure that the whole nation will echo your sentiments and feel with you the thrill of a common pride and common sorrow; pride in the glorious service, and historical achievement of these our brothers who gave freely all exacted from them. They have set for all of us the perfect example of service and sacrifice, and it is well that their associates should, through this tribute, remind the nation of its eternal obligation to prove worthy of the devotion its sons have ever shown for it."

President Lincoln said:

"But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here."

Pericles said:

"So died these men as became Athenians. For this offering of their lives they each of them individually received that renown which never grows old, and for a sepulchre not so much that in which their bones have been deposited but that noblest of shrines wherein their glory is laid up to be eternally remembered upon every occasion on which deed or story shall call for its commemoration. For heroes have the whole earth for their tomb, and in lands far from their own, where the column with its epitaph declares it, there is enshrined in every breast, a record unwritten with no tablet to preserve it, except that of the heart."

## G

### PROPAGANDA

It has been charged that some textbooks contain propaganda. In reply some have alleged that all who make the charge are persons opposed to friendly relations with Great Britain. The reply cannot be sustained, as appears from the following editorial in *The American Legion Weekly* of October 7, 1921:

"The country has known for some time that school textbooks on American history are being revised on the theory that the elimination or correction of obvious untruths or distorted truths concerning England's rela-

tions with this country, notably during the Revolutionary War, would promote the cause of international friendship. . . . If the purpose of some of the authors was not to give the lasting impression to the school children of this country that the Revolutionary War was an unjustifiable war, that is likely to be the effect of their work. . . . It will be regretted if what appeared to be a meritorious undertaking has been exploited with propaganda which every fair-minded American must resent."

It cannot be contended that the American Legion is actuated by malice toward any country.

The State Commissioner of Education has said:

"The public schools of any country should be the expression of that country's ideals, the purpose of its institutions and its philosophy of life and government. The schools of America should be an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government."

It is impossible for a writer to be a propagandist and to give the best that is in him to his country. A propagandist's book cannot be "an expression of America's ideals, of her democratic institutions and of her philosophy of life and of representative government."

If one may propagandize for, another may propagandize against. The result would be intolerable.

## H

### CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

As far as possible, the writer of a textbook should avoid controversial topics. The public schools are maintained by the public funds. The taxpayers are of various creeds and political beliefs. Their feelings must be respected.

However impartially the writer may try to deal with a controversial topic, it is impossible for him to eliminate completely his personal views and prejudices. The pages of a textbook are limited. Only a limited amount of material can be used, even though the topic is of the utmost importance. Impartiality is impossible unless there is an adequate presentation of the essential facts.

In the absence of very strong reasons to the contrary, the discussion of controversial topics should be avoided in elementary school textbooks.

## I

### PATRIOTISM

It is objected that some of the textbooks make no attempt to inculcate patriotism by bringing to the attention of pupils the best in the lives, words, and deeds of our patriots; and that in some of the books, too much attention is given to the utterances and achievements of the heroes of other countries.

In reply, it is urged that true patriotism does not require that we magnify our country at the expense of others; that a "narrow-visioned" patriotism means that the Englishman will become more English; the German, more German; and the American, more American.

We are not unmindful of the force of the reply. We must insist, however, that in the elementary grades, our primary concern is to acquaint the pupils with the deeds and words of our own heroes, and with the traditions of our own land.

Patriotism is not "egotism." To make certain that the pupils in the elementary grades are thoroughly

familiar with our own heroes before we introduce them to the heroes of other lands is neither "narrow-visioned" nor evidence of "international hatred."

We do not agree with the sentiment that: "Patriotism is a force effective only for war." Or that it is "Bellicose nationalism disguised in sheep's clothing of self-righteousness."

To inspire the pupil with love and reverence for his country, we must acquaint him with the best that his country has achieved.

**SUMMARY FINDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE AS AMENDED BY THE BOARD OF SUPERINTENDENTS**

The specific findings and recommendations of the Committee may be found in the stated aims in the report and in the critical analyses of the subjects presented in the monographs. As a result of careful consideration and discussion of the charges as a whole, the Committee agrees upon the following findings:

1. There is no evidence to support the charge that the textbook writers whose books were examined were intentionally unpatriotic. However, the paragraphs complained of in their books indicate an attitude of mind toward the founders of the Republic which, in our judgment, is entirely reprehensible.
2. There is no evidence to support the charge that any of the textbooks examined was written as a result of unwholesome propaganda. Some of the writers frankly stated that they believed there ought to be more friendly relations between Great Britain and the United States, and that they wrote their histories from that standpoint.
3. The usefulness of some of the books examined is impaired because the authors have written from the point of view of a critical historian rather than from the point of view of a teacher.
4. The pupils in our public schools should not be taught the personal weaknesses of our national leaders.
5. The principal faults of the textbook writers are:
  - A. Failure to realize that many of the facts of history should be taught in the elementary grades, not as ends, but as means to ends; such as love for law and order, respect for constituted authority, appreciation of the institutions of the country and its ideals.
  - B. Failure to describe adequately and vividly many of the most inspiring events in our history, though there is available a vast fund of material of the highest educational value.
 

Illustrations: Some of the accounts of the Battle of Bunker Hill; the surrender of Cornwallis; the Battle between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*.
  - C. The inclusion of statements and characterizations concerning our national heroes and our civic leaders which are either offensive, or of such doubtful propriety, that they are out of place in a public school textbook.

Illustrations: "Jefferson was a demagogue, a liar and an atheist"; "John Hancock was a smuggler"; "Samuel Adams was a political boss."

- D. The discussion of controversial topics, of which a fair presentation of the essential facts involved requires far more space than is available within the limited pages of a textbook.

Illustrations: The factional issues in the Jacksonian period; Hamilton's financial policy.

- E. The use of the textbook for the promulgation and the exploitation of the writer's personal beliefs in disregard of curriculum requirements, and in violation of reasonable limitations on his freedom of utterance.

Illustrations: The validity of the reasons set forth in the Declaration of Independence in justification of the Revolution; the justifiableness of our Declaration of War against England in 1812.

- F. The use of offensive illustrations, and cartoons.

Illustrations: The cartoon on Lincoln; and the cartoon on Woodrow Wilson (see monograph on cartoons).

- G. Failure to realize that the usefulness of a textbook is determined by the presentation of material that makes for good American citizenship.

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# Pupil Management of Class Activities

BY HOWARD C. HILL, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

To the thoughtful student the irregular and unchartered educational careers of many men of genius cause doubts to arise at times concerning the value of the detailed and explicit directions ordinarily given to the pupils in the schools of today. Most of the great historians, for example, were educated contrary to all rules and foreign to all systems. Gibbon during childhood browsed among books at his pleasure; entered Oxford when fourteen with, as he said, an exceptional knowledge of things usually unknown; left the university before completing any course; read omnivorously, among other things perusing all Roman literature before the age of twenty-one; served in the army (an experience which he states proved invaluable when he came to write the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*); prepared his own guide-book before traveling in Europe; in short, was in large part his own mentor and followed his own bent in his work. Buckle, the author of the *History of Civilization*, also had a most unusual education. Physically weak, he was sent to a private school on condition that he might take whatever he pleased—as much or as little. Some time later, to the great joy of his parents, he won the prize in mathematics. As a reward they promised him whatever he might ask for,—and to their amazement he asked at once that he be taken out of school! Up to the age of twenty-eight he cared for practically no books, except *Pilgrim's Progress*, Shakespeare's plays, the *Arabian Nights*, and *Don Quixote*. Then, almost overnight, he awoke intellectually; took a live interest in history; traveled for years throughout Europe acquiring language after language until he had mastered nineteen; and finally wrote his great book—a book which in spite of its eccentricities had a remarkable influence directly and indirectly on the thinking of historians and economists. Did space permit a similar story could be told of the educational experiences of Fustel du Coulanges, Michelet, Hodgkin, and our own matchless Charles Henry Lea—men who rank as leaders in historiography, but who never had a formal scientific historical training except as they acquired it for themselves and by their own efforts.

Genius, of course, is superior to ordinary rules, and methods or conditions advantageous for its development might well prove ruinous for persons of ordinary mental endowment. Nevertheless, one cannot but wonder whether a plan of education, or a lack of plan which did so much for persons such as those just mentioned might not contain something of value for the rest of mankind.

At all events, this was an idea which lay back of the experiment to be described.<sup>1</sup> By this experiment

I hoped to accomplish three things: first, to develop a power of initiative among pupils—to stimulate them to think out and propose methods, projects, and enterprises; second, to arouse a keen interest in civics, an interest which seemed to be lacking, especially among the girls, under ordinary class procedure; third, to make the meaning of certain things in civics clear by having the pupils do them—to teach what a town meeting was by having the class meet at one, to show what a constitution was for and how it was made by having them make and adopt one for their own use, to help them see what democracy is by having them pass and obey laws. In the fourth place, I hoped to have the class conduct its activities in such a way as to demonstrate the rules which govern public assemblies, the manner of presiding at public meetings, how motions are made, discussed, and decided—in short, to inculcate in a practical way the rudiments of parliamentary law. A fifth aim was to correct slovenly methods of speech and address—to teach pupils by actual practice to rise, to express their ideas on a given subject in a connected effective way without help or suggestion from teacher or classmates by question or otherwise; in brief, to provide in the class-room a real audience situation rather than to afford merely an opportunity for a formal recitation.

Having decided to give the plan a trial, I next proceeded to put it in operation. In order to remain true to the leading motive—that of making the pupils responsible for the undertaking—I decided to explain the plan, call their attention to what seemed to be its good features, point out some of the anticipated weak points, and then see if they cared to try it. Accordingly, one morning we talked the matter over during the regular recitation period and the class then voted by a large majority to try the experiment. A committee was appointed to draft a constitution and was ordered to report the next day. After the committee had made its first rough draft, I met with it and offered a few suggestions. The report was given next day: some amendments were made by the class, the constitution was adopted, officers were elected, and the experiment was formally launched.

The officers of the Civics Club, the name adopted by the class, were President, Vice-President, and Secretary. Each officer held his position for one week only and was not eligible for re-election to the same office; the purpose of this restriction was to give every member of the club a chance to hold as many different offices as the time available in the remainder of the school year permitted. Every Friday a nominating committee was appointed by the President to suggest nominations for the various offices. It reported Monday and its report was usually accepted by a unanimous vote. The election of officers ordinarily required less than five minutes.

<sup>1</sup> Both the origin and numerous details of this experiment were suggested by an admirable article written several years ago by Miss Lotta A. Clark. This article, "A Good Way to Teach History," was published in the *School Review*, Vol. XVII. pp. 255-266.

The duties of the various officers can best be seen from the way the meetings were conducted. The President called the club to order and the Secretary called the roll and read the minutes of the previous meeting. The minutes contained not only a report of any business which might have come before the club, but also a summary of the subjects which had been discussed at the previous meeting. In this way the work of the preceding day was reviewed before the regular assignment was taken up. Next in order was "special business." Under this head were considered any matters of a business character not associated with civics proper, such as reports of committees and election of officers. "Unfinished business" was next in order. This consisted of any subjects which might have been discussed one day unsatisfactorily or which might have led to some question which no one in the class could answer; these were noted by the Secretary as unfinished business and were now called for. In this way the class was held responsible for all matters that might come before it and was led accordingly to do considerable reading outside the text. Occasionally I suggested interesting articles in magazines or helpful passages in books which explained points or topics left over as unfinished business or which were to be discussed the following day.

After these matters (roll-call, special business, and unfinished business) came the formal work of the club, the "discussion of the day," as it was called. The President now announced the topic for discussion, such as "The Powers of Congress" or "The Duties of the President," and declared the meeting open to all who cared to speak upon the subject. After the first speaker had finished, other pupils were given opportunity to make corrections or further contributions. When the discussion on the first topic was finished, a second was introduced by the President. The discussion continued in this way until the assignment was covered or the time available came to an end.

I was known as the Executive Officer. I took my seat regularly in the rear of the room; had supreme power to veto any action of the club—a power which it was never necessary to exercise. The last five minutes of the period were assigned to me for the purpose of correcting any errors that had been allowed to pass without notice during the discussion, of making any suggestions which seemed necessary, and for summarizing the work of the day.

The constitution was as follows:

#### CONSTITUTION

##### *Preamble.*

We, the members of the civics class of the Deerfield Township High School, in order to promote interest in the study of civil government and to cultivate responsibility and capability, do ordain and establish this constitution.

##### *Article One. Name.*

The name of this organization shall be the Civics Club.

##### *Article Two. Membership.*

The club shall consist of all the members of the

civics class of the Deerfield Township High School, including the instructor.

##### *Article Three. Officers.*

Sec. One. The officers of this club shall be a president, vice-president, and a secretary.

Sec. Two. The term of office shall be one week. Election shall take place each Monday.

Sec. Three. A committee of three to suggest names for the several offices shall be appointed by the outgoing president on the Friday preceding election.

Sec. Four. An officer cannot be re-elected to a second term in the same position.

##### *Article Four. Duty of Officers.*

Sec. One. Duties of President. It shall be the duty of the president to preside at all meetings of the club, to enforce strict parliamentary order, and to assign the discussion for the following day.

Sec. Two. Duty of Vice-President. It shall be the duty of the vice-president to preside at all meetings in the absence of the president; at such time he shall have the full power of president.

Sec. Three. Duties of Secretary. It shall be the duty of the secretary to call the roll at every meeting, to keep a record of the proceedings of each meeting including a brief summary of the important facts considered in the previous discussion and a record of all unfinished business. The secretary shall also keep a credit record of each member of the club.

##### *Article Five. The Meetings of the Club.*

Sec. One. Order of Business. The president shall call the meeting to order. The secretary shall call the roll and give a report of the previous meeting. The president shall then call for any special business. He shall next call for unfinished business. The meeting will then be opened for the discussion of the day.

Sec. Two. Privileges of Membership. Every member of the club shall have the privilege of participating in the discussion at every meeting. He may speak a second time, providing all the members shall first have had an opportunity to address the club.

Sec. Three. Executive Officer. The instructor in this course shall be known as the Executive Officer and shall have full power whenever necessary. The last five minutes of the meeting shall be given to him, in which time he shall summarize the discussion of the day.

##### *Article Six. Amendments.*

A vote of two-thirds of the members present shall be required to amend the constitution and by-laws. An amendment must be proposed at least one day before it can be voted upon.

#### BY-LAWS.

##### *Article One. Procedure.*

In all questions of parliamentary procedure "Robert's Rules of Order" shall be the guide.

##### *Article Two. Recognition.*

A member of the club shall always be entitled to recognition by the chair when he rises upon a point of order, a matter of personal privilege, or a question of information.



But what about marks? How were the grades managed? The importance of this problem was felt by the entire class. After an animated discussion of various methods, the following scheme was adopted. Grades were to be determined by a combination of marks in recitation and marks in quizzes and tests. The recitation was estimated as being worth two-thirds of the month's grade; the monthly oral quiz, which was conducted by the instructor, and the regular monthly written test as being worth one-third.

Recitation grades were determined thus: the secretary kept a record of the number of times the various members contributed something worth while to the class discussion. The executive officer also kept a record. At the end of each week the secretary and the executive officer met and checked up accounts. If there were any differences, we compromised on them. The passing mark in recitation was determined as follows: the pupil who had worthily participated in the discussion most frequently—say twenty times during the week—was estimated at one hundred per cent; in order to have a passing mark, it was decided that a member must have participated half as many times as the leading pupil in the class, or in the case cited, ten times; this record would be evaluated as seventy-five per cent, the passing mark in the school. Variations between the highest grade and the passing mark were easily ascertained by simple mathematical computations.

In order to prevent the "bright" pupils from monopolizing the time, it was provided that no member of the club should be allowed to speak twice until every other member had had a chance. If persons who had not spoken did not embrace an opportunity, then any one who rose had the right to the floor. If two or more arose at the same time, the President recognized whichever one he chose—usually the one who as a rule talked the least. In case the President recognized the wrong person, such as recognizing one who had already spoken when another person who had as yet taken no part in the discussion was on the floor, some member of the club or the secretary would make the point of order that the person recognized was not entitled to the floor. This part of the plan and, indeed, the entire marking system, worked very well.

The chief defects which appeared in this method of teaching civics follow. In the first place, the weak pupils sometimes failed to do their part. When the continual prodding to which they had become accustomed during years of school life was taken away, they often lacked the necessary energy to participate of their own volition. Some of these members of the class, however, seemed to awake to new life and became good pupils. On the whole, however, the plan did not solve the weak pupil problem.

In the second place, there was a tendency at times for certain pupils to prepare well on one or two topics and to neglect the rest of the assignment. This tendency was corrected in part by the monthly quiz and the test and also by the fact that a pupil could never be sure that he would get to speak on the par-

ticular topic or topics upon which he had prepared: the president might recognize some one else. On the whole, this tendency did not prove as great a defect as I had anticipated. Judged by the monthly tests, the class as a whole mastered the subject very satisfactorily.

A third and more serious weakness in the plan was that some phases of the work were not so well developed nor so well explained as one usually desires and secures in ordinary class procedure. Many points to be made well must be made at the psychological moment, when the matter is under discussion and interest is high. Naturally, it was impossible to make these points if the instructor adhered to the plan as outlined and kept in the background. Many of the points were explained at the summing-up time allotted to the executive officer, but the explanations were usually not so effective as they would have been had they been made when the matter was fresh in mind.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the experiment as a whole seemed to be worth while. At the end of the semester the pupils were more capable of acting for themselves. Throughout the course the lessons were planned and assigned by the various presidents; the girls were awakened to a new interest in the subject; recitations came voluntarily; effectiveness in oral expression notably improved. Various activities of merit were planned and carried out by the class: at their suggestion one day in the week was set aside for current events; debates on live topics were occasionally held; a mock trial was staged after school hours in the main assembly hall. To this the rest of the school was invited and came in a body. Unfortunately the jury disagreed and the prisoner had to be discharged. The account of the trial, as given in the school paper, follows:

#### THE MOCK TRIAL.

"Monday afternoon, May 10th, the Civics class conducted a murder trial in the Assembly Hall. Lester Levin was the prisoner, John Thompson, who was being tried for the murder of James Wilson, president of the El Dorado Mining Company. The facts in the case were these: The prisoner and his brother Will (Clinton Fritch) held twenty shares of stock. On January 26th the stock dropped in open market seventy-five points. Thompson wanted Wilson to make good; Wilson said he would. The brothers, on January 28th, were in Mr. Wilson's private office. Mr. Wilson drew up a check for the amount demanded by the brothers.

"Will went to the bank to get the stock certificate. While he was gone Wilson tried to bully John and tore up the check. John became angry and after some hot words drew a revolver belonging to Wilson from a pigeonhole on the latter's desk and fired.

"The firing took place about 4 o'clock. When persons who heard the shot ran to the office they forced the door and found Mr. Wilson on the floor, dead, and John Thompson bending over him, apparently very much frightened. The witnesses in the case were William O'Neil, Gertrude Nevins, Clinton Fritch, Richard Lutz, (Coroner) Mark Byers, Earl McPherson, Helen Sullivan, Mary Phillips, Harold

Harbough, Mr. A. R. Williams (Mayor of Highland Park), and Hazel Bailey. The prosecuting attorneys were William Wrenn and Priscilla Norenberg. The attorneys for the defense were Harry Bock and Mary King.

"The jury, which had previously been sworn in, was composed of six members: Brand, Gladys Spencer, Harriet Leaming, Barker, Darby, and Stevens. Ferne Greene was expelled since it was proved she was governed by prejudices. Jessie Taylor was clerk and Mr. Hill presided as Judge.

"The proceedings were taken down in shorthand by Maud Chamberlain and William McNanley. The "court room" was crowded and at 2.30 the judge called the court to order. The trial was well conducted, good evidence being given all the way through.

"In summing up the case both William Wrenn and Harry Bock did remarkably well. The jury would come to no decision being one in favor of acquittal and five in favor of capital punishment. It was finally brought down to one year's imprisonment, but the one member still desired acquittal."

The practice of changing officers every week gave all the members some actual experience in holding office and by the close of the year many of them were able to preside over a meeting creditably. All in all, the aim of stimulating the self-reliance of pupils and of making them more efficient and responsible seemed to be realized. Finally, the pupils liked the plan: at the end of the year the chief criticism they had to make was that the scheme had not been introduced at an earlier date.

## A High School Civic Project

BY J. B. LAMBERT, A.M., DEPARTMENT OF CITIZENSHIP, DuBOIS (PA.) HIGH SCHOOL.

There is no course in the curriculum which has undergone such radical changes in both content and method as has civics. One need only briefly survey the field of civic instruction over a period covered by the last fifteen years to see the remarkable changes that have taken place. Up to the time when Mr. William Arthur Dunn published his "Community and the Citizen," civics was a highly formal, exceedingly uninteresting and greatly dreaded course of study. That was in 1907. Now, from the standpoint of content, one would scarcely recognize the course as being related to the old civics, and, from the standpoint of method, one would need a vivid imagination indeed to discover any similarity whatever. The project method, used with much success in other studies, has, when given a fair trial, proved of infinite value in the teaching of civics. Its possibilities are unlimited because it is pedagogically, psychologically and common-sensibly sound. It works. The success of the project with which this article is concerned is due entirely to that fact.

The idea of making and publishing a civic-class survey of our own city of Du Bois was inspired by a sentence in the Introduction to the "Community and the Citizen." Mr. Dunn says: "If civics instruction is to be vital, the object of study must be, not the pages of the textbook, but the actual community of which the pupil is a member." No teacher can fully realize the tremendous significance of that sentence and long retain the old formal idea of civic instruction. So our High School civics classes, numbering nearly two hundred pupils, determined to launch out into the deep, to cut loose from the time-honored moorings to textbooks and to search out the fascinating mystery of community life in all its manifold ramifications as actually existing in our own city.

We first realized that we must have a definite aim. We had not gone far in search of one until we found that we might have several. However, we found that

there was one ultimate aim and that all lesser aims could be made contributory to it. Our list of aims as finally agreed upon was:

First, the ultimate aim: To develop good citizenship by awakening and inspiring the pupils' sense of individual and collective responsibility for the success or failure of their own city as an inhabitable community.

Second, contributory aims:

To acquaint pupils with the actual "importance and significance of the elements" of their community's welfare.

To get a working knowledge of the agencies operating to secure these elements and to judge the efficiency or inefficiency of administration in the light of actual facts discovered.

To compare the elements found in our own city with those found in other communities and to discover, by such comparison, whatever excellencies or deficiencies there might be.

Another aim conceived rather as a personal aim by the instructor, was to prove the value of the project method.

After deciding upon aims the question of method naturally arose. The city, with all its potential treasure as an object of study, lay before us. How could we secure the treasure? We went about it thus:

The classes were organized into a research club with a president, vice-president, secretary, etc. The elements of community welfare that might be expected to yield the largest results to close study, were decided upon and tabulated. There were about twenty-five in all. Included in the list were government and administration, industry, transportation, public utilities, health, education, religion, housing, planning, markets, etc. Each element was assigned to from six to eight pupils who conjointly were to

submit their findings in the form of a written report. Form letters of introduction, typed on school stationery and signed by the instructor, were given to each pupil to facilitate access to busy people who might furnish information. A month was given to actual research and preparation of reports. Accuracy and thoroughness were emphasized as ideals.

After the material was all collected the problem of summarizing it into some convenient, easily accessible form was taken up. The organization now resolved itself into a publishing company. An editor-in-chief and seven associates were elected by popular vote. To them was assigned the task of editing the material and getting it ready for the printer. A board of directors was elected to look after the business end of the project. It was decided to finance the publication on the stock company basis. A budget of expense was made based on bids from printers. Shares of stock were then issued at a par value high enough to cover expenses, provided each student subscribed for at least one share. A few bought none; some more than one; the entire issue was sold. Each share entitled the holder to one vote in the company, to one booklet and to an equal share in whatever profits might accrue from the sale of extra copies. Five hundred copies were printed. Each stockholder automatically became a salesman to dispose of the surplus. The price was fixed at a rate high enough so that, provided the entire edition was sold out, each stockholder would get back in dividends the original cost of stock minus a few cents for his booklet. The edition was sold out; the money put into the common treasury and distributed equally to the stockholders on the basis of one share of dividend to each share of stock. One boy bought five shares, which cost him \$1.75. He got five booklets. Four of these he sold for eighty cents. When the dividends were returned he got as his quota on five shares \$1.85. That made him a gross income of \$2.10 and a net profit of forty cents and a booklet free. All who bought more than one share profited by the price of their extra booklets. The booklets cost single shareholders seven cents. The directors handled the financial end in a remarkably successful manner. But the editorial staff was no less successful. To condense so vast an amount of material into enough for a twenty page booklet is a task that might formerly have been considered beyond a Freshman class in High School. Conscious of their limitations they wrote in the preface to the booklet: "Mistakes no doubt have been made. If you find any just remember that the authors are High School Freshmen and that this is their first attempt at so large an undertaking."

Was there any difficulty in getting students to work? Yes, at first. There is nothing remarkable about this, however. The project was new, the method was new—everything was new. It required breaking all traditions of class activity. "Why not stick to our books like we have been used to?" was asked more than once. It is the age old story. What new ideas of progress in society, government, religion and industry have not met with a like reception!

How was inertia overcome and action secured? Mainly by an appeal based on the novelty and bigness of the thing. The instinct of the pioneer is innate. It is at its height during early adolescence. No normal teen-age boy or girl will long ignore a challenge to be first to do some big new thing. Here was a chance to "run things" by being a voter. Officers were to be chosen; every voter was eligible and hence a potential president, or editor, or treasurer with a chance to get his name on the front page. Who could resist? So with the exception of two or three irreconcilables a unanimity seldom secured among such a cosmopolitan crowd as two hundred Freshmen was secured. Interest grew with activity until it became so intense that one could not have bought out the financial, literary, or administrative interest of a single student for twice the amount of money or effort it cost him.

Can we expect specific results and will they justify the effort. I think so. If no further results than the mere activity of the class in putting the project across are secured, it will still justify the effort. But such intensive activity cannot but be productive of further and more far-reaching results. Knowledge of duty intensifies consciousness of responsibility. Responsibility, in the majority of cases, is a sobering influence that tends toward sanity of action. Facility of action depends largely upon experience. Hence, in the natural course of events, sane civic action must be encouraged on the part of these pupils when they are called upon to exercise responsibility, not as a school project, but, in the light of the knowledge and experience gained in school, in actual situations in very real life. In the light of the aims with which we started I think we can justly expect certain definite results such as:

First, A more intimate knowledge of the "Old Home Town" with a consequently increased interest and pride in and heightened respect for its traditions and activities.

Second, Increased knowledge of the functions of enfranchisement and greater confidence and facility in their exercise, e. g., voting, nominations, elections, organization, etc.

Third, Self-reliance in meeting people of affairs and greater insight into methods of securing first hand information.

Fourth, Some knowledge of business and finance.

Fifth, Appreciation of the value of co-operation to the success of common undertakings, and

Sixth, To realize our ultimate aim to develop a better type of citizenship. All aims, methods and minor results must be as means to this end for in it and it only do they have their excuse for existence.

"German War Finance" is discussed by Fred Rogers Fairchild in the *American Economic Review* for June. The article by Mr. Fairchild is based on "Les Finances de Guerre de l'Allemagne," by Charles Rist, of the Faculty of Law of the University of Paris, but includes as well, some original information.

## Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH. D.

The July and August *Harper's* have installments of a most interesting account of ("Meandering where flows the Meander") of present-day Turkey, by Lady Kennard, who has known these regions intimately for many years, her father who was in the English Diplomatic service, having been stationed here.

The *Yale Review* for July has an unusual number of articles of interest to historians. Walter Lippman's "Second Best Statesmen" is one of these. After a most interesting introduction in which he discusses the beginnings of the instinct of Democracy manifested by human-kind, he goes on to say: "by a sleight-of-hand, popular government embraced a mythology. Beginning with a theory based on the vision of a very simple village community where everyone knew everyone else's character and affairs, and inspired by a high sense of human equality, the democrat found himself in an unmanageable civilization. No man's wisdom seemed great enough for the task. A somewhat more omnipotent wisdom was necessary. . . . Then came the doctrine of interests to relieve the tension. . . . And then because we all have a tendency to worship whatever is powerful and certain the cult of instinct was taken up by 19th century liberalism . . . and the cult of instinct has turned out to be an illusion."

Another thoughtful article in the same magazine is "The Eclipse of Europe," by Francis W. Hirst, an Englishman's interpretation of that mess called "Welt-politik." Mr. Hirst's treatment of the financial situation shows a knowledge of facts, regardless of what one may think as to the conclusions he draws from these facts. He says: "Almost all European budgets show a gaping void between revenue and expenditure which cannot be filled by taxes or loans. . . . Of the new states Czecho-Slovakia is the only one that has put its money on anything like a decent footing and the only one whose money is worth more than it was a year ago. . . . At least one valuable piece of work has been accomplished at Genoa. . . . the report of the Finance Committee. . . . The Report holds that a stabilization of European currencies is essential to the reconstruction of Europe, that the banks of issue should be free from all political pressure; that these central banks should co-operate . . . that all European currency should be based on a common standard and that this standard must be gold. So long as there is a deficiency in the annual budget of a state met by the creation of fiduciary money or bank credits, no currency reform is possible, and no approach to the establishment of a gold standard can be made."

"The End of Race Migrations," by Henry F. Osborne, also in this issue, gives an outline of the origin of the first and second great phase of population movements which together cover almost the whole period of the recorded history of the human race.

In conclusion Mr. Osborne says: "The control of population will be one of the greatest questions of the next few generations. . . . Every advance in hygiene, sanitation and public health which tends to extend the average span of life adds to the gravity of the problem. . . . The peace of the world can not be assured until some effective check is placed on wars for lands or products of land; the property of the world cannot be assured until there is a general denial of the right of any nation with an excessive increase of population to seek relief by sending its surplus nationals abroad. . . . It is time to assert the *duty* of self-determination. Each nation must be compelled to work out its own population problems without threatening the well-being of other nations that are more intelligent or more self-controlled."

In the September *Review of Reviews*, in an article entitled "Europe's Debt Tangle and America's Duty," Mr. Frank H. Simonds says: "We have no responsibility for the present situation and no obligation; when every other nation is following its own legitimate but national self-interest, to sacrifice ours. Least of all is there any reason why we should be stampeded into unreasoning prodigality by any such manœuvre as the Balfour note."

In the same magazine is an interesting account of "Brazil and Its Centenary," by Roy H. Nash, which considers the public health, and reclamation of lands in addition to a brief history of our neighbor, and concludes by saying: "There is a New Brazil and in these two decades of the 20th century she has moved farther in the direction of larger and finer life for the average man, than in the four hundred years that went before. If certain basic problems of democracy like public education have been neglected, charge it to the Republic's youth. . . . She has solved one great problem of a modern democracy which United States has found well-nigh insoluble: with a population where all colors from white to black freely intermingle, Brazil knows no color problem and is torn by no race hatred."

In a sympathetic sketch, entitled "Senator Lodge a Massachusetts Institution" (*World's Work* for September). Mark Sullivan writes: "The pride that Massachusetts has in Lodge has a broader base than merely his present elevation in the Senate or in the length of his services there. . . . The clue to the qualities that distinguish Lodge is to be found in his book, 'Early Memories,' which reflects a boyishly eager attraction toward men like Sumner, Howells, Holmes, Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell, all that was finest or most vital in politics, art or scholarship of the New England of a generation ago. A person whose boyish enthusiasm took this turn and who sought and maintained their associations . . . is far above the average of the Senate."

In *Current Opinion* for August, General Emil Taufflieb, Senator of France from Strassburg, gives an earnest defense and explanation of French Militarism.

Henry Fairfield Osborn gives a summary of the results of the Third Arctic Expedition of the past year, in his article "Proving Asia the Mother of Continents" in the September *Asia*, an article which belongs to historians as well as to geologists.

"Aspects of Rural Japan," by Walter Weston in the September number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, has some beautiful illustrations, showing the fast disappearing picturesqueness of the Japanese.

V. B. Metta's article on "Ancient Hindu Education" (August *Forum*), is full of interesting suggestions to modern educators for "The ancient Hindu educationists did not create a system of education and then enmesh all their pupils in it indiscriminately. They all attached a great deal of importance to individuality, which . . . according to them is composed of (a) the soul's past; (b) heredity; (c) surroundings, and (d) race. After understanding their pupils individually as well as they could, they then tried to develop them, each according to the bent of his own nature. . . . The Hindus attach great importance to the capacity for mental concentration. . . . The Hindu *gurie* (teacher) commanded implicit obedience and admiration from his pupils by his knowledge, wisdom and sanctity. In order to educate the young men placed in his charge, he took into consideration their (a) emotional capacity; (b) formed habits and associations; and (c) . . . nature . . . The Hindus never believed that boys can become pious by being taught the dogmas of a religion at school. . . . Religion has to be lived and not learned as a creed if it is really to influence our thoughts and actions. . . . The Hindus have always considered that the man who is master of himself is more capable of being religious than the man whose impulses and desires are imbroiled."

Sir John Willison gives the reader a most interesting analysis of the British Empire of this day, in his article, "Canada in the Empire," in the July *Nineteenth Century*, and his general hopefulness as well as his belief in the Mother Country are shown in his concluding words: "If the Empire holds together the population of the Dominion will steadily increase, the Commonwealth become more powerful, and the dignity of British citizenship will be enhanced from generation to generation. . . . The machinery for co-operation for common interests will evolve as the need arises. . . . In these days the power and majesty of the Empire do not make the old appeal to men's hearts and emotions. The things written deeply in the history of Britain that we most value are the love of truth, the tradition that a man must keep his word, the obligation that a nation must keep its engagements. Nowhere in modern British history has Britain betrayed an ally, or treated a foe ungenerously, or provoked war among nations."

Rev. Martin J. Scott, S. J., thinks, in his article "What Ails the World?" (*North American Review* for September, the second in the series on World Restora-

tion) that "Man wants justice"—but generally he wants it for himself. Justice requires that a man or nation subordinate personal or national advantage to right and truth. That means frequently the sacrifice of personal or national interests. . . . In the council of nations, each government is inclined to seek its own interests. Hence only a partial or temporary agreement may be affected. But compromise never cures. It simply covers. What will cure Justice?—But to attain justice is beyond man's power if he be not aided by religion, and by sacramental religion of the Catholic Church.

"British Students of Padua," by Horatio Brown in the July *Quarterly Review*, is a review of Italian education in the Middle Ages, as well as an account of the Englishmen in residence there.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,  
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY  
*Industrial History of the United States.* By Louis  
Ray Wells. The Macmillan Company, New  
York, 1922. 584 pp.

The recent emphasis upon economic history is now bearing fruit in the production of a growing list of textbooks upon the industrial life of our nation. In this book the obvious need for a text designed chiefly for high school students has been met. The author has constantly sought to stress the influence of three factors: centuries of a constantly moving frontier, the promise of inexhaustible natural resources, and the effect of bringing the people together after the frontier line has disappeared and the resources have been appropriated. In the introduction the author states that he has tried to avoid encumbering the text with statistics but that "Emphasis has been put upon the way in which things have been done rather than the amount done." This is the keynote of the treatment and while it is theoretically sound, economic history must be partially told with statistics and a knowledge of their use cannot be imparted too early. Such statistics can be made clearer by graphs or pictographs of which no use whatsoever is made. On the other hand the causes and effects have been soundly diagnosed and the treatment of controversial subjects is extremely healthy and sane. Examples of this are the handling of the Nonpartisan League and of the whole history of labor unions.

The writing of American economic history is still in too experimental a stage for one to be over-critical about the allotment of space to periods and subjects. Following the new tendencies less than one-sixth of the text is devoted to the colonial and about one half to the period up to the Civil War. This has necessitated a somewhat meagre treatment of many subjects, including the economic effect of the Revolution, the development of transportation before the 1860, and the history of the merchant marine. The great Commercial Revolution is hardly mentioned. Inasmuch as a great deal which comes later rests upon

conditions and practices of earlier times which may be more readily weighed and recounted, there is much to be said for a fuller exposition of the colonial and formative years. At the same time no effort has been made to deal as a whole with the effect of the World War. While it is difficult to appraise accurately at this close range the economic effects of the conflict they have been so stupendous that it is possible to point out some of the most important, at least as they are shown in legislative action. Some attention also might well have been given to the economic background of American imperialism. The style, while not flowing, is clear and kept within the grasp of the group for which the book is intended and many of the facts are stated in an original and refreshing manner.

Aids to students and teachers at the conclusion of each chapter include a list of general references citing pages but without dates of publication, a bibliography for special topics, a list of questions which are largely aimed to review the material in the chapter, and some suggested questions for debate. There are 76 pictures well chosen but unevenly distributed and fifteen maps in black and white. More of the latter with graphs could well have been used. The book as a whole is well done and by all odds the best adapted to high school use which has yet appeared.

HAROLD U. FAULKNER.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

*The British Empire: A Short History.* By J. P. Bulkeley. Oxford University Press, 1921. x, 228 pp.

*The Expansion of Britain from the Age of the Discoveries: A Geographical History.* By W. R. Kermack. Oxford University Press, London, 1922. 112 pp.

An increasing number of books, of varying scope and value, on the history of British expansion bear witness to the growing interest in the British Empire. Mr. Bulkeley's volume is a brief manual, "intended for class-room use in secondary or continuation schools, as well as for any teachers or general readers who require an introductory history of the British Empire." The first four chapters contain a brief narrative account of colonial expansion from ancient to modern times and show, in some important matters, the relation of English to British imperial history. Succeeding chapters outline the development of British dominion in North America, Australia, India and South Africa, and a concluding chapter passes in summary review the growth of the modern French, Russian, German, Italian, Japanese and American colonial empires and characterizes modern British imperialism, showing its compatibility with the nationalism and autonomy of the Dominions and indicating the principal constitutional problems now confronting the British Empire. Brief bibliographies are appended to the several chapters. Despite some errors in statements of fact and in dates this little volume should prove helpful to teachers and students of English history in

secondary schools, for it emphasizes the cardinal truth that the history of the Empire is inextricably interwoven with the history of modern England. Throughout Mr. Bulkeley lays stress upon geographic factors, as does Mr. Kermack in his sketch of British expansion. The latter, however, does little more than this, and his booklet is of no value for political, economic or social conditions. Both authors show the influence of the writings of Sir Charles Lucas, and neither, it may be added, questions the beneficence of British imperialism.

R. L. SCHUYLER.

Columbia University.

*James K. Polk: A Political Biography.* By Eugene Irving McCormac. University of California Press, Berkeley, California, 1922. 746 pp.

This volume is a "full-length" portrait of the President in whose term of office the United States admitted Texas to the Union, settled the Oregon question, and conquered California and New Mexico. The older view of the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War, derived from anti-slavery and Whig sources, has been disintegrating through the destructive work of modern critical historical study: one is not surprised therefore to find that the conclusions reached by Justin H. Smith in his definitive work *The War with Mexico* are closely paralleled in this independent work of McCormac's; though McCormac takes on the whole a more favorable view of Polk himself. It will be strange indeed if the children of the next generation shall still be taught the ancient errors, when historians of different origin and traditions reach similar conclusions!

Professor McCormac has diligently examined the Polk Papers and other collections in the Library of Congress and has produced a serviceable book. He has devoted much attention to Polk's earlier political life, and this part of the book throws much light on important phases of the history of Tennessee in the Jackson period—the relations of Polk and Bell, the split in the Jackson ranks, and the candidacy of Hugh Lawson White, for example. There are very interesting chapters on the nomination of Polk, the campaign, and Polk's ideas as to the Presidential office, as manifested in his actions and in the principles which he confided to his *Diary*. The latter part of the volume of course deals with the great events of Polk's Presidency.

Professor McCormac demonstrates clearly that the "conspiracy" or "intrigue" alleged by Benton and by Gideon Welles to have been formed to overthrow Van Buren amounted, so far as Jackson and Polk were concerned, to an effort to nominate Polk only after it had become clear Van Buren could not receive the necessary two-thirds vote at the Baltimore Convention, or, if nominated could not be elected: and that Jackson so far from being ignorant of what was going on, was directing it. In several instances Professor McCormac shows the partisan errors of von Holst.

One must add, with regret, that the typographical

errors are numerous, particularly in the case of proper names. The substitution on page 364, of the word "annexation" for "independence" entirely distorts the meaning of a sentence in Buchanan's letter of June 15, 1845, to A. J. Donelson. Sr. G. L. S.

*The Enchanted Past.* By Jeannette Rector Hodgdon. Ginn and Company, New York, 1922. vii, 225 pp. 88 cents.

A new note, a departure from the usual content and style of children's books, a striking emphasis, marks this little volume. In her Foreword the author convincingly sets forth her purpose, which is to foster in children the feeling of man's common brotherhood, manifested by common impulses and aims that have animated the long, toiling, progressing throng from earliest times, here pictured in folklore, proverbs and art, rather than in conquest. The keynote is that of progress, a slow but sure uplift.

Pursuing the conception of the relationship of all mankind, "irrespective of race, color or creed," Mrs. Hodgdon carries her readers away from the highway so well trodden through Europe, into strange paths penetrating the East, where have dwelt the Hindus, the Egyptians, the Chinese, the Hebrews, those elusive brothers, whose history and religion she presents through bits gleaned from their own literature.

The entire work, executed with scholarly carefulness and accuracy, possesses an attractive literary style, so that for the adult it is a pleasant companion. To enjoy its pages, to sympathize with its objects, well promoted by wisely selected material, is no difficult task, but exactly to estimate its place in juvenile literature is perhaps not so simple. Nevertheless *The Enchanted Past* should serve a useful purpose as a supplementary history text, since it furnishes for children, in convenient form, much that could otherwise be found, if at all, only after laborious research. Thus it puts in the way of young people a new type of reading matter, and should stimulate writers of children's books to delve more understandingly into the fascinating lore of the past of distant peoples, so as to present its treasures to youth in ever better, more skillful ways, so that the fine purpose outlined by Mrs. Hodgdon may more and more be fulfilled.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School.

*American Economic Life.* By Henry Reed Burch. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1921. 533 pp.

As the author states in his preface, "this book is a restatement of *Elements of Economics* in a somewhat revised and improved form," "an attempt to present in problem form the more important phases of American economic life." In other words, it is not an abstract study of economic principles, but rather an attempt to show how these principles apply to the development of our own national life.

There is a distinct effort on the part of the author ~~to~~ teach a lesson as well as to study our economic ~~from~~ a scientific viewpoint. He repeatedly

emphasizes the importance of "economic welfare" as the true goal of economic life, and undertakes to show how events in our history have helped or hindered the attainment of this goal.

The double nature of the task involved in the book makes it more difficult to write than a simple treatise on economic theory or on the economic history of America. In several respects this difficult task has been well done. The style is direct, clear and simple. The subject matter is well chosen and interesting. The outlines preceding each chapter, as well as in the margin of the text, the lists of questions and problems at the ends of chapters, and the references for supplementary reading add to the clearness and usefulness of the book for secondary school pupils.

At certain points the author's statements are open to criticism as to accuracy. For example, in speaking of the effect of the English Navigation Acts on colonial shipbuilding, he says "these acts struck a hard blow at a rising American industry." An examination of such well-known authorities as Day and Bogart, not to mention the text of the Acts, would have prevented this reversal of the facts. Colonial ships were included under the term "English ships" in the acts and because ships could be built in the colonies much cheaper than in England, many English merchants used ships built here and thus increased the demand for colonial ships, thereby encouraging the industry. Again, the statement of the Theory of Malthus fails to bring out the fact that Malthus noted the checks which operate to prevent undue growth of population. In the chapter on Value and Price this statement occurs: "In other words, goods are scarce because industrial effort or labor is necessary to their production." No mention is made of other possible causes of scarcity. Such a half truth may easily give a wrong impression to the pupil.

Other statements that seem open to criticism are the definition of "marginal utility" on page 319 and the classification of monopolies on page 327. The chief criticism in most cases is that, in order to emphasize a particular point under discussion, the author makes a statement that is a "half truth" and fails to tell the reader that it is only a "half truth." This is dangerous, especially with pupils who are just beginning the study of economics.

As a whole, the book accomplishes what the author states as his purpose in the preface. In form, it is well suited for secondary school use; it is admirably written and, though generally accurate in statements of fact, should be used as a text, with such care that the pupil will not get wrong impressions from some statements which are only "half truths."

WINTHROP TIRRELL.

High School of Commerce, Boston.

*Problems in American Democracy.* By Thames Ross Williamson. D. C. Heath and Company, New York, 1922. xvi, 567 pp.

*Problems of American Democracy.* By Henry Reed Burch and S. Howard Patterson. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922. x, 601 pp.



Both of these texts are evidently intended for use in the last year of the senior high school, often called the 12th grade. Their practically identical titles are doubtless inspired by the report of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Schools. (Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education.) It is a hopeful sign to see textbook writers and publishers moving in the direction of some standardization of our courses in the social studies, for we have wandered too long at random in our efforts to make the teaching of the social studies useful.

Mr. Williamson is an assistant professor of economics and sociology at Smith College, and in the rather unusually long list of persons who assisted him in the preparation of his book he mentions no secondary school teacher or administrative officer. While Mr. Patterson is now a member of a university faculty, he was previously a secondary school teacher, and his colleague, Mr. Burch has long been a teacher in the West Philadelphia High School for Boys. The second of the two works is therefore primarily an outgrowth of teaching experience and the former of special scholarship, however these two sources of equipment may overlap.

Mr. Williamson divides his text into five parts, entitled: Foundations of American Democracy, American Economic Problems, American Social Problems, American Political Problems, The Mechanism of Government. His first part is mainly historical and might be unnecessary if the program from which he takes his title were followed, for then the course for which his text is written would be immediately preceded by a course in American history. His second part contains twelve chapters, one third of which deal with socialism, which seems a rather large proportion. His fourth part places the tariff, credit and banking, and taxation among political instead of economic problems. The volume includes an excellent bibliography of really helpful works in history, sociology, economics, and government; an appendix containing the constitution of the United States, but none for a state; and at the end of each chapter a number of helps for teachers—questions on the text, required readings, questions on the required readings, topics for investigation and report, and topics for classroom discussion. Frequent reference is made to the author's *Readings in American Democracy*.

Messrs. Burch and Patterson offer a slightly larger book with longer chapters and no division into parts. Their text is enlivened by about two score well-chosen illustrations. The argument of the book runs from a few chapters of environmental background, through political organization of the community to a consideration of problems, thus reversing the order followed by Mr. Williamson. Government does not receive, however, a very large share of the total discussion. This is natural now when the teaching of government is almost wholly neglected in the schools, and author and publisher must cater to the demand regardless of their opinions and preferences. This volume seems to contain a much more concrete dis-

cussion than the other, more than three-fifths of the book being made up of chapters each of which takes up a particular problem for definite presentation. It also contains the constitution of the United States, but not that of any state. It does not contain a bibliography, but at the end of each chapter is to be found a somewhat briefer set of questions, topics for discussion, and references to sources of information, than Mr. Williamson's book provides, although it may be that the briefer lists still contain more citations than the average teacher is able to use.

D. G.

## BOOK NOTES.

It is the purpose of the University of London Intermediate Source-Books of History to provide a body of original materials on English history from the period of the Roman Occupation to the World War, primarily intended for University students but also meant to be useful to textbook writers and general readers. The three volumes thus far issued provide very valuable collections of extracts from contemporary documents a large proportion of which have never been published, and the editing is on the whole very competently done. The first, *Illustrations of Chaucer's England*, edited by Miss Dorothy Hughes, appeared in 1918. Miss Isabel D. Thornley's *England under the Yorkists, 1460-1485* (Longmans' Green & Co., London and New York, 1920; 280 pp., \$3.25), after an admirable "Brief Account of the Sources" presents five groups of materials devoted respectively to Political, Constitutional, Ecclesiastical, Economic and Social, and Ireland. All foreign-language documents are translated into English, though fifteenth century English is given in its original form. It is a pity that only about fifty pages are devoted to economic and social aspects of the period, agriculture being omitted, while the political alone gets 185 pages. It is especially fortunate that a full and excellent index is provided. Miss Jessie H. Flemming's *England under the Lancastrians* (1921; 801 pp., \$4.00) is identical in plan and similar in treatment. Other volumes, including those on the period before the Norman Conquest and the period of Elizabeth, are announced for early publication.

In three lectures the Chairman of the Plymouth Tercentenary Celebration Committee retells the story of the Pilgrims. (*Plymouth and the Pilgrims*, By Arthur Lord. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1920, 178 pp.) He has a hard time starting, the first tenth dealing with the Northmen, DeSoto, Jean Ribaut, *et cetera*, and it cannot be said that he puts his heroes in any new light. He says that the Mayflower Compact would have been drawn up even if they had landed within the territorial limits of their patent. He believes that the Pilgrims were never attacked because they were so well prepared and because of treaties with the Indians; their distance from the French frontier was probably more important. He traces many ideas to the Pilgrims' experience in

Holland, showing here the influence of Douglas Campbell. He forgets to notice the chief reason for the failure of communism,—the open land; and he praises Bradford and his colleagues for actually collecting evidence and trying undesirable citizens before deporting them. As a good summary of Pilgrim history interspersed with moral reflections this little book can be recommended.—DIXON RYAN Fox.

The teacher of history and civics who would keep up with demands of the day in his field must give some attention to the progress of natural science. Two recent books that will help him are John Mills's *Within the Atom* (Van Nostrand Co., New York, 1921; 214 pp., \$2.00), and *The New World of Science* (Century Co., New York, 1920; 448 pp., \$3.00), edited by Robert M. Yerkes. The latter is made up of twenty-four chapters by specialists describing the progress and contributions of their respective fields—physics, chemistry, geology and geography, engineering, biology and medicine, and psychology—during the World War. This research and advance is necessarily of prime importance in connection with the arts and industries of peace, and the volume, which belongs to the "Century New World Series" is much more than a "war book." Mr. Mills, an able physicist and engineer with a gift for popular exposition, undertakes the very difficult task of presenting an authoritative but readable account of present theories regarding atomic structure and the nature of matter and energy. With the aid of an easy and colloquial style and thirty-six pictorial illustrations, the author succeeds in his purpose, assuming no previous knowledge on the part of the reader of electricity, chemistry, or mechanics. A book so filled with valuable information might well be used for reference as well as for reading, but no index is provided. There is a useful glossary.

The views of a liberal and thoughtful employer are presented in *Labor's Crisis*, by Sigmund Mendelsohn (Macmillan Co., New York, 1920; 171 pp., \$1.50). It is a suggestive study based upon wide practical experience and extensive reading.

*Handbook of Municipal Government* (192 pp.) and *Assets of the Ideal City* (177 pp.), by Charles M. Fassett (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1922), were evidently written to popularize progressive thought on city government and problems rather than to add to the present store of information. The author, who is now a specialist in municipal government in the University of Kansas, and has been mayor of Spokane, is evidently well read in the best literature and able not only to select his material well but to express himself clearly and forcefully. The general reader who wishes to secure a brief introduction to the field will find these volumes satisfactory, and if he wishes to read further he will find at the end of each volume a well selected and classified bibliography.—E. D.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Apr. 29, 1922 to Aug. 26, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY.

- Adams, Randolph G. Political ideas of the American Revolution. Durham, N. C.: Trinity Coll. Press. 90 pp. (13 p. bibl.) \$2.00.
- Albright, George L. Official Explorations for Pacific railroads, 1853-55. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 187 pp. (10 p. bibl.) \$1.50.
- Andrews, Charles L. The Story of Sitka. Seattle, Wash.: [Author] 1806 E. 73rd st. 108 pp. \$1.50.
- Bassett, John S., editor. Major Howell Tatum's journal . . . engineer, (1814) to General Jackson. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College. 138 pp.
- Bolton, Herbert E. The Spanish Borderlands; a chronicle of old Florida and the southwest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 320 pp. (6 p. bibl.)
- Buell, Raymond L. The Washington Conference. N. Y.: Appleton. 461 pp. \$3.00.
- Cabot, Mary R., editor. Annals of Brattleboro, 1681-1893. In 2 vols. Brattleboro, Vt.: E. L. Hildreth & Co. 1159 pp. \$15.00.
- Chancellor, William E. History and government of the United States . . . for evening school students. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 120 pp. (1 p. bibl.) 60c.
- Comstock, A., and Mueller, H. R. State taxation of personal incomes, by Comstock. The Whig party in Pennsylvania, by Mueller, N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 248, 271 pp. (2, 16 p. bibl.) \$6.00.
- Farrand, Max. The fathers of the Constitution; a chronicle of the establishment of the Union. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 246 pp. 4 p. bibl.
- Gordy, Wilbur F. History of the United States. Revised Edition. N. Y.: Scribner. 600 pp. \$1.60.
- Greene, Everts B. Foundations of American Nationality. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 654 pp. (25 p. bibl.) \$2.60.
- Harrington, Mark R. Cherokee and earlier remains on the upper Tennessee River. N. Y.: Museum of the Am. Indian, Heyl Foundation. 321 pp. \$4.50.
- Henry, Alexander. Alexander Henry's travels and adventures in the years 1760-1776. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co. 340 pp.
- Holliday, Carl. Woman's life in colonial days. Boston: Cornhill Pub. Co. 319 pp. \$2.50.
- Howard, Daniel and Brown, S. J. The United States; its history, government and institutions. N. Y.: Appleton. 344 pp. \$1.50.
- Howland, Howard J. Theodore Roosevelt and his times; a chronicle of the progressive movement. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 289 pp. (2 p. bibl.)
- Jennings, Walter W. The American Embargo, 1807-1809. Iowa City, Ia.: Univ. of Iowa. 242 pp. (6½ p. bibl.) \$1.50.
- Johnson, Allen. Jefferson and his colleagues; a chronicle of the Virginia dynasty. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 343 pp. (10 p. bibl.)
- Kenilworth, Ill., New Trier High School. How the Pilgrim spirit came to Illinois; a pageant. Kenilworth, Ill. [Author] 36 pp. 50c.
- Knox, Dudley W. The eclipse of American sea-power [discusses effect of agreement to limit naval armaments]. N. Y.: Am. Army and Navy Journal. 140 pp. \$1.50.
- Konkle, Burton A. George Bryan and the Constitution of Pennsylvania, 1731-1791. Phila.: W. J. Campbell, 1731 Chestnut st. 381 pp. \$4.00.
- Lawrence, Robert M. Old Park St. and its vicinity [Boston]. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 172 pp. \$3.00.
- Lawson, Leonard A. The relation of the British policy to the declaration of the Monroe doctrine. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 153 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

- Lawson McGhee Library, Knoxville, Ten.** Calvin Morgan McClung historical collection of books, manuscripts, pamphlets, pictures, and maps relating to early western travel, and the history and genealogy of Tennessee and other Southern States. Knoxville, Tenn.: Knoxville Litho. Co. 109 pp.
- Lovell, Louise Lewis.** Israel Angell, colonel of the 2d Rhode Island regiment [1777-1781]. N. Y.: Putnam. 360 pp. Privately printed. \$5.00.
- Mayers, Lewis.** The federal service; a study of the system of personnel administration of the United States government. N. Y.: Appleton. 607 pp. \$5.00.
- Meeker, Ezra.** Seventy years of progress in Washington [State]. Seattle, Wash. [Author] Congress Hotel. 381-51 pp. \$5.00.
- Moorehead, Warren.** The Cahokia mounds. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 56 pp. 25c.
- Morgan, Lewis H.** Leagues of the Ho-de-no-sau-nae of Iroquois [2 vols. in 1]. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. \$7.50.
- Mueller, Henry.** The Whig party in Pennsylvania. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 271 pp. (16½ p. bibl.) \$2.75.
- Mulford, Uri.** Pioneer years and later times in Corning and vicinity; 1789-1920. Corning N. Y.: [Author]. 588 pp. \$6.00.
- Muzey, David S.** The United States of America; 1. Through the Civil War. Boston: Ginn & Co. 621 pp. (25 p. bibl.) \$3.00.
- New York, State Historian.** The records of Ballston Spa, Saratoga County, N. Y. Albany, N. Y.: The Univ. of the State of N. Y. 11 pp.
- Nichols, Philip.** Taxation in Massachusetts. Boston. Financial Pub. Co. 800 pp. \$10.00.
- Oberholtzer, Ellis P.** A history of the United States since the Civil War. In 5 vols. Vol 2; 1868-1872. N. Y.: Macmillan. 649 pp. \$4.00.
- Odate, Gyogu.** Japan's financial relations with the United States. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 136 pp. \$1.25.
- Parsons, Elsie W. C.** American Indian life. N. Y.: Huebsch. 419 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$10.00.
- Quaife, M. M., editor.** Fort Wayne in 1790; journal of Henry Hay. Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs, Merrill. 70 pp. 50c.
- Schroeder, Seaton.** A half-century of naval service. N. Y.: Appleton. 443 pp. \$4.00.
- Seymour, Charles.** Woodrow Wilson and the World War. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 382 pp. (5 p. bibl.)
- Sibley, Dr. John.** A report from Natchitoches in 1807. N. Y.: Museum of the A. Indian, Heyl Foundation. 102 pp.
- Slosson, Edwin E.** The American spirit in Education; a chronicle of great teachers. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 309 pp. (3 p. bibl.)
- Stephenson, Nathaniel W.** Texas and the Mexican War; a chronicle of the winning of the Southwest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 273 pp. (2 p. bibl.)
- Sullivan, Mark.** The great adventure at Washington; the story of the Conference. N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 290 pp. \$2.50.
- Swanton, John R.** Early history of the Creek Indians and their neighbors. Wash., D. C.: Smithsonian Inst., Govt. Pr. Office; Supt. of Docs. 492 pp. (5½ p. bibl.)
- Tapley, Silvester H.** The Province Galley of Massachusetts Bay, 1694-1716. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 39 pp. \$1.00.
- Thomson, Holland.** The age of invention; a chronicle of mechanical conquest. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 267 pp. (7 p. bibl.)
- Tokutomi, Iichiro.** Japanese-American relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 207 pp. \$1.50.
- Van Tyne, Claude H.** The causes of the war of independence; being the 1st volume of a history of the founding of the American republic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 499 pp. \$5.00.
- Warren, Charles.** The Supreme Court in United States History; in 3 vols. Vol. 1, 1789-1821; Vol. 2, 1821-1855; Vol. 3, 1855-1918. Boston: Little, Brown, 540, 550, 532 pp. (1½, 1½, 1½ p. bibl.) \$18.00 set.
- Wells, Louis R.** Industrial history of the United States. N. Y.: Macmillan. 584 pp. \$2.00.
- Wood, William C. H.** Captains of the civil war; a chronicle of the blue and the gray. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 424 pp.
- Woodburn, James A. and Moran, Thos. F.** The makers of America. N. Y.: Longmans, Green, 306 pp. 96c.
- Wrong, George M.** Washington and his comrades in arms; a chronicle of the war of independence. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 295 pp. (4 p. bibl.)

## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Ahl, Augustus W.** Outline of Persian history. N. Y.: Lemcke & Buechner. 129 pp. \$1.75.
- British Museum.** Cuneiform texts from Babylonian tablets, etc., in the British Museum. Pt. 36. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$8.00.
- Casson, Stanley.** Ancient Greece; a study. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 96 pp. \$1.00.
- Clay, Albert T.** A Hebrew deluge story in cuneiform. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 86 pp. \$1.75.
- Goldenweiser, Alexander A.** Early civilization. N. Y.: Knopf. 428 pp. \$5.00.
- Le grain, Leon.** Historical fragments (Univ. of Penn. Pub. of Babylonian section, vol. 13.) N. Y.: Appleton. 108 pp. \$3.50.
- Magie, David, translator.** Scriptores historici Augustæ; in three volumes. Vol. I. Loeb classical library. N. Y.: Putnam. 493 pp. \$2.25.
- Quennell, M. and Quennell, C. H. B.** Everyday life in the old stone age. N. Y.: Putnam. 201 pp. 1½ p. bibl.) \$2.50.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Attenborough, F. L., editor.** The laws of the earliest English kings. N. Y.: Macmillan. 256 pp. \$5.00.
- Bennett, H. S.** The Pastons and their England. N. Y.: Macmillan. 289 pp. \$5.00.

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- Brief History of the Intervention in Haiti. Commander R. B. Coffey (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, August).



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Volume XIII.  
Number 8.

PHILADELPHIA, NOVEMBER, 1922.

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**NOTE :** The December issue of The Historical Outlook will contain the first year-book of the National Council for Social Studies, and will include reports of the Council's work during the past year.

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*Published monthly, except July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.*

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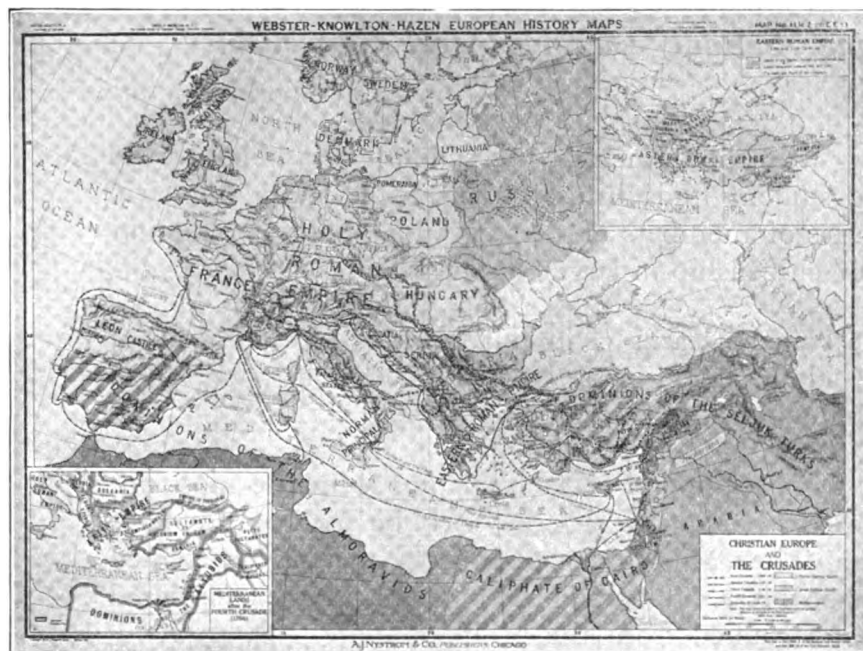
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# The Historical Outlook

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## The Plans of the National Council for the Social Studies

The next annual meeting will take place in Cleveland, Ohio, at the time of the annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, about March 1, 1923. The program of the meeting will be published in the February number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and mailed to those who are not subscribers at about that time. It is hoped that a full meeting of the officers and members may then be had and that the plans of the organization may be fully discussed.

### TWO PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

Two amendments to the constitution will be proposed at Cleveland. They will be published in the February number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and mailed to those who are not subscribers. The following statement of them is made in the hope that all who have suggestions as to their advisability will communicate with the secretary at their earliest possible convenience. Some inquiry among the members seems to show that the amendments will be approved.

The proposed changes grow out of the problems incident to a coöperative movement based largely on the principle of federation. The purpose is to secure the more active participation in the work of the National Council of the associations which can contribute most directly and usefully to the work of the National Council; and to guard against any temptation to commit our organization to the endorsement of any immature or ill-considered schemes.

One amendment will provide that the present Advisory Board, with the officers elected at the regular annual meetings, shall constitute a Board of Directors and shall be expected to guide the policies of the National Council, devising ways and means for carrying out the policies. The other will provide that the statement of purpose in the constitution shall include a self-denying ordinance to the effect that it is *untra vires* of the National Council to endorse or advocate the endorsement of any single program of studies or method of teaching.

Members will be interested to know more fully why these amendments are proposed now.

The germ of the National Council was the idea that the teachers of the social studies should set up machinery through which to coöperate in developing their work. The need of such machinery had been felt for more than a decade. Out of it grew *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, formerly called the *History Teachers Magazine*. From it sprang efforts in the East, the Mississippi Valley, and California to create a national association of teachers. Since the charter

members of the National Council had no other notion than that of a coöperative exchange of information, the need of a self-denying ordinance did not occur to the first committee on a constitution.

With the germinal idea of mutual helpfulness went the secondary idea of federation as a method. There were already a number of associations which devoted a part of their energies to developing the social studies in the schools. Most of them looked upon this aspect of their work as secondary to the development of departments of university teaching and research. Since they were actuated by the natural impulse to secure for their several subjects separate recognition in the schools, they were working in many cases at cross-purposes, and wasting energy which was sadly needed to construct a better system of teaching. They, as university scholars, did not quite realize that in the schools the same group of teachers generally handled all of their subjects when these subjects were handled well and not relegated to filling up the programs of teachers who had no interest in them.

When the Advisory Board was created in the hope that associations of scholars would not hesitate to appoint advisers to guard the new movement against mistakes, it was found that a few of them took the matter of advising very seriously and feared that the appearance of their names in an advisory capacity would in some way commit them to what the National Council might do. The reason for asking the *appointment* of representative advisers was the wish to avoid picking persons from fields of scholarship with so narrow a vision that important bodies of opinion and stimulus might be neglected. Hand-picked advisers may be selected to advise anything that is wanted. The members of these established associations seemed to think that it was better for them either to stay out of the movement or to take an active part in its guidance.

The god-fathers of the National Council would at the outset have created such a Board of Directors as is now proposed if they had supposed it was possible to secure such active coöperation in the movement. The formulation of the proposed changes has grown out of the discussions in a Joint Commission of representatives of the associations, which was created in December, 1921, to consider the general problems of a coöperative effort for the social studies; but the changes have met with most hearty welcome from those who have been with the National Council from the beginning. The members of the Joint Commission believe that there is no doubt that the parent association from which they come will be willing to give active support to the National Council.

### THE MACHINERY AS PROPOSED

Under the revised constitution, the organization will be somewhat as follows, details to be worked out in the drafting of the amendments on the basis of suggestions received from the members who react to the present discussion:

1. A Board of Directors consisting of (a) five delegates from the associations of historians, political scientists, economists, sociologists, and geographers; (b) five from the organizations of elementary and secondary school principals, superintendents, specialists in educational research, and heads of normal schools; (c) five from the sectional associations of teachers of history and the other social studies in New England, the Middle States, the South, the Mississippi Valley, and the Pacific Coast; (d) and the officers elected by the members of the National Council at the regular annual meetings. In addition, it has been suggested two others be added to the Board of Directors. These are the editor of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, to present the problems of our journal; and a corresponding secretary whose duty it would be to ascertain and to report from time to time the progress in the social studies in other countries.

2. An Executive Committee, charged with the active direction of the affairs of the organization in carrying out the policies formulated by the Board of Directors, and consisting of the officers elected at the annual meetings and of such other Directors as the Board may designate. It is proposed that the committee consist of seven members.

3. In the interest of division of labor, the Board of Directors will probably find it advisable to set up standing committees on such problems of investigation as the objectives sought through the social studies; the materials available for use; the methods of instruction recommended in this field; and the training of teachers. The efforts of these and other committees will be unified through common responsibility to the Board of Directors.

4. The best results will not be attained if the work of the National Council is too highly centralized. It has been proposed that branches of the National Council be set up in all of the states. A number of the members are so much interested in the movement that groups have already been formed in some states. The time has passed for pronouncements from a central agency. What seems to be needed for the greatest progress is the evolution of methods through interchange of stimulus and information and a gradual growth of a unified plan. The proposals to set up state branches does not mean duplication of the present state organizations of teachers of history and other social studies where these already exist. Those local organizations now at work have shown themselves disposed to meet the National Council more than half way in such a policy as has been outlined above.

5. There are nearly five thousand teachers now engaged in an effort to perfect the teaching of Latin

in this country. Surely as large a number may be counted on for the social studies. Such a membership would mean one member in each state for each 20,000 of population. The state representatives who have been consulted believe that this number could soon be reached. Some expect to exceed the quota within a year.

6. Caution. It is of the greatest importance, in the interest of avoiding dogmatic pronouncements which will make for friction and confusion, that the work of our organization be kept to its proper channels—the collecting, systematic statement, and distributing of information. Every member will strengthen the movement by helping to keep these limits clearly in mind.

### THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

Other similar organizations have found the establishment of a journal the first necessary step and the greatest difficulty in their enterprise. For such a movement, a journal is nothing more than the systematic and well organized periodical publication of such information as all of the members should have. The National Council has such a journal ready to hand.

This periodical was started more than a decade ago by Professor McKinley, now of the University of Pennsylvania, as his contribution to the cause of effective teaching. Its subscribers now number about five thousand, and it has the official recognition and support of the American Historical Association. Its name has indicated that it was mainly for history teachers because nearly all of the teachers of the social studies are classed as history teachers; but the editor has recognized from the beginning that the movement for the National Council is the best guarantee of the best development of all of the social studies. From the beginning, he has published material on civics, economics, geography, and sociology; and he will doubtless be only too glad to enter into any arrangement by which some of the responsibility and labor of maintaining the journal may be shifted from his shoulders. For a number of years he maintained it at a financial loss; while it is now about self-supporting, any educational journal of the constructively conservative sort must be thought of as a thing to be carried rather than as an asset in itself.

The editor has turned over the present issue to the National Council. It is the first of a series of annual numbers which will summarize the progress of the organization and of the social studies. This first effort in summarizing is of course no indication of what future ones will be when our committees are fully at work.

It is to be hoped that as many members of the National Council as can possibly do so will become regular subscribers to the journal. For them to do so will greatly increase their own equipment and will greatly lessen the burdens of the office of the secretary. If it should eventuate that all of the members become subscribers, the work of circularizing the members and making announcements to them would be reduced to a minimum.



### THE WORK OF THE ORGANIZATION

The organs of coöperation indicated above having been set up, the National Council can push its constructive work with vigor. Because of its splendid possibilities for service, its responsibilities are second to those of no organization engaged in educational or other enterprises. The time was never so ripe and may not be for many years so ripe again for the most thorough-going effort to make of teaching a real preparation for a democracy that avoids the dangers both of stagnant pessimism and of sentimental unintelligent confusion. Only the future can show whether the sinews of our present life are equal to the task.

The practical work of the National Council may be allocated into the following categories: (1) to inform the thinking public on the subject of education in the social studies; (2) to survey the present programs and practices in our fields in order that such assets as we have may be budgeted; (8) to discover and give currency to such constructively hopeful undertakings as promise to add to our assets. A few halting steps in each of these directions have already been taken.

#### 1. TO INFORM THE PUBLIC

Conferences on the social studies were held this year at the summer schools of about a score of the leading universities including Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, Chicago, Texas, Colorado, Syracuse, Oregon and Southern California. Some of the conferences were kept within the proportions of round-table discussions; others were attended by several hundred people. One to three took place at each university. Where there were three, at least one was a round-table discussion. At least a score of reports have been sent in, and other places may have accomplished something without reporting. From every place the report is that the effort was thoroughly useful and can be made much more so next year when our plans will be more thoroughly developed. This is but natural since at the summer school all of the types of persons are assembled who can contribute to the best development of education,—teachers, specialists in subject matter, and specialists in educational organization,—and this is one of the few occasions in which all of them are together for any extended period of time. It is likely that a hundred institutions will conduct conferences next year.

At the meetings of national, sectional, and local associations of teachers, the problems of the National Council have been presented. Thanks to the energy of Secretary H. E. Kidger, of the New England History Teachers Association, and Dr. C. D. Kingsley, of the Massachusetts Department of Education, a lively conference took place in Boston on July 6, when the National Education Association was in session. Many more invitations to present the plans of the National Council to state and local gatherings have come to the central office that could be accepted, but speakers have been available in a considerable number of cases in the East, Central and Western States. With the complete organization of coöperation with state agencies, none of these opportunities may be lost, and many more will be offered.

Newspapers and other journals, including particularly those devoted to education, have opened their pages with the greatest hospitality to our offerings. The Associated Press has carried announcements to all parts of the country, and most of the leading journals of education have published at least one statement of our hopes and expectations. It is most important for as many of us as can do so to exert ourselves in the direction of letting our undertaking be known to those whose duty it is to support us. To minimize the importance of our enterprise will be to betray the responsibilities imposed by our situation. The intelligent public is awake to the need of something being done in the direction in which we are working, but a sadly small proportion have any knowledge or vision on the subject.

#### 2. TO SURVEY WHAT WE ARE DOING

To organize and to awaken interest are important steps toward accomplishment; but they are not of primary importance. They do not accomplish anything constructive. The real work of the National Council is more serious than propaganda.

The most serious task of our organization is to bring about such an examination of our assets as to lay a foundation for development. The very process of such an examination will stimulate our minds and strengthen our determination to make our work worth while. There are those who will think of the proposed survey as an effort merely to collect facts; they will think we are doing the kind of work for which we could employ a statistical expert and forget him. Of course, we have no such limited purpose. As we work together in the determination of the bases of our efforts at education, our goal will become clear and the paths toward it will open and become definite. We shall be engaged in studying our field together.

The ground plan of the investigation will probably assume the following general outline:

- a. What ends are to be sought through the social studies?
- b. What materials are available for seeking these ends?
- c. What methods of handling the materials are used?
- d. How are teachers trained for using the methods in handling the materials?
- e. What hopeful undertakings are pioneers engaged in developing?

The first of these basic considerations is discussed elsewhere in this issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* under the title "Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies." There a first step is made toward determining why we teach history, government, economics, sociology, geography. One would like to know what are the aims and values of these subjects of study. The Joint Commission of representatives of learned societies is studying this problem, and it may be hoped that a statement from that authoritative source may be published in the next annual number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. One of the attacks which will be made on the report of the Joint Commission may grow out of a consideration of the question, are these

objectives worth while? Another will be, are they attainable? Those who are seriously interested in the social studies will deal patiently with the enormous difficulty in finding answers to these questions. After all, they may have to remain matters of opinion. In such matters reasonable compromise and adjustment must be resorted to by those who are engaged in a practical task.

Examination of the remaining basic considerations is less handicapped by the indefiniteness incident to working with mere opinions. Investigators may appeal to either of two sources of information. One is the appeal to such authoritative opinion as that of the Joint Commission. The other is to proceed by what we have come to call scientific methods. There are those who claim that the study of man in society is now no further ahead in its evolution than the natural sciences were in the Middle Ages,—in a period of dogmatism and superstition. If this is true, it is high time that we put our house in order for the new world.

We have been a little too content to rest our case in many matters which concern the National Council on positive statement. We have not taken the trouble to demonstrate where demonstration was possible. A little space must be used, even in this crowded issue of our journal, to illustrate what is here meant.

We have dogmatized no little about what is called the "socialized recitation." Surely there is no need to continue this if we can determine what our objectives are and devise a method of examining whether we have attained them. If we know whether a pupil has attained to what we are seeking, we can differentiate between those who have done so and those who have not. Where this is possible, we can show that those who follow one method of teaching have reached the goal and that others have not.

Elsewhere in this issue Miss Bessie L. Pierce describes an effort to isolate causes and results in this problem. She would be the last to claim that her small experiment have finally settled the matter; but she would probably say that if twenty-five such experiments were made in different places under one direction, this number might eliminate accidental elements and the personal equation to a sufficient extent to show whether it is better to conduct classes according to the socialized recitation or not. To conduct such an experiment would be to seek some of the information our organization needs.

There is no little dogmatic opinion that it is better to teach the principles of economics, government, and sociology in the last year of the high school in a composite course called "Problems of Democracy." Others aver that economics and government must each be given separate treatment in a half year of work. If we know what we are seeking through these subjects, and if we can find out whether pupils have profited in the direction we think they should profit; then we can divide a number of pupils into separate classes, place them under similar conditions, and find out which groups more successfully approach the ends

we aim at. The difference may not be great. If it is undiscoverable, then let us dogmatize no more; let us agree that one course is, as far as we can know, as good as the other.

Work in the social studies has suffered no little from confusion of ideas as to what it is possible to do with pupils in certain stages in their development. As scientifically trained a scholar as Professor Henry Johnson is engaged in what he believes is a demonstration that some things can be done with children in, say, the sixth grade of the school system which it has been common to claim could not be done. His demonstration will have no effect on some of those to whom he offers it. But those minds which are in the habit of being influenced by objective facts will be greatly served by such efforts as his.

Those who may object to "experimenting with children," may be reminded that all of the children who submit to such experiments are taught more thoroughly than are thousands of other pupils in "regular courses." All of the former follow methods which are advocated by a considerable group of reputable school authorities. The "experiment" means little more than careful planning and administration to the end that causes and effects may, within the limits of possibility, be isolated and kept constant. It may further be added that we shall not, at least at present, be able to reach results with the certainty of the natural sciences. All that is claimed is that the problem may be attacked in the scientific spirit.

Much of the information sought by the National Council may be collected by those who applying for the master's or doctor's degree without in any way weakening the standards of the universities. The paper contributed to this issue by Miss Hartwig is an abstract of a master's paper prepared at the University of Missouri, under the direction of Professor C. A. Ellwood. Unfortunately, the fact that the National Council cannot afford the expense of generous publication, some of the best of Miss Hartwig's paper had to be deleted. Studies resulting in similar comprehensive surveys in other states, or experiments in university or other high schools would be equally as useful as many theses now selected for dissertations. After all, the preparation of a dissertation is mainly a matter of training in scientific method.

### 8. THE FINDING LIST

It is necessary to say only a word here about the Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings which is discussed elsewhere in this issue. Under each of the five headings mentioned for the survey experiments are being conducted. There experiments should be listed and described with sufficient fullness for those who are interested in common efforts to find each other and coöperate. The work will be multiplied in usefulness if these experiments can be so organized that they will check each other to the end that accidental elements may be discounted and the essential matters placed in proper perspective.

No effort can be made in the pages of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* now to publish such a list with any degree of completeness, for space is not available. All that can be done is to illustrate a few of the kinds of information that will be useful. Such undertakings as that of Dr. R. F. Nyman in the Oakland, California, Technical High School to discover the results of pupil activity in civic training can be duplicated in many parts of the country and those who are working along parallel lines should be known to each other. Miss Stone and Miss Harford, of the University of California High School, supplied for this issue an interesting study of pupil self-government as a means of training in civics for which space is not yet available. Hundreds of schools are working along this line, but without the coöperation that will most rapidly bring results. Every member of the National Council can contribute to the completion of the Finding List, and it is hoped that the coming year may see the completion of a first edition of it.

#### THE SINEWS OF WAR

Ways and means of carrying on our work are yet to be worked out. Printers send in bills, and the United States Government has not made the postal service as free as the use of the highways. While the secretary is a typist who many years ago retired to the dignified leisure of a college professorship, he cannot write on more than one machine at a time and several are needed. If all members could become subscribers to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* so that the cost of circularization and printing could be reduced

to a minimum, and if they could in addition pay annual dues of one dollar, the next secretary might be able to see his way forward. The officers of the organization will be glad to receive suggestions.

The membership now numbers a little less than a thousand, but the number is increasing steadily. A large majority are subscribers to the journal and so pay into the National Council fifty cents. About a third of the members, those not at present subscribing, pay one dollar. About a dozen have sent in from five to twenty-five dollars as contributions. Teachers should not feel obliged to make large contributions of money to this kind of a cause; but it may be that a large number will see their way clear to becoming members at three dollars a year, receiving the journal of their profession and contributing to the development of the work to which their lives are devoted.

The secretary believes that a younger and less burdened man should be selected for his post at the next annual meeting. This undertaking is important enough to take more of a man's time than can be given by one who is carrying the responsibilities of a large college department, several faculty committees, and a fairly heavy teaching program. Whoever is selected as secretary may command a third of the present secretary's time and depend on the fullest coöperation from one who believes that we have embarked on a journey that may lead to the most splendid achievements in modern education. After these first two years the books will be turned over to him without a deficit and he will find a body of workers earnest enough to cheer the heart of any public servant.

## Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings

The chief concrete task which the National Council has before it this year is to discover those persons and groups of persons who are seriously seeking to develop our work in the social studies. It is proposed to publish a Finding List of Hopeful Undertakings in which our assets will be budgeted against our liabilities of expectation to reach a definite body of objectives. Every reader of this paper is urged to assist in the completion of this task by sending to the secretary of the National Council all of the information in his knowledge which will aid in finding those who are at work, including the quiet workers who are often too busy to advertise their efforts.

The following paper is meant to serve no other purpose than to illustrate a few of the kinds of information that is sought for the Finding List. Other persons are doing work similar to that mentioned below; and still others are doubtless doing different kinds of things which in the end may be equally as useful as these. If the reader knows of any person who is doing strikingly good, not necessarily spectacular, work in any aspect of the social studies (organization of material, methods of teaching, training of teachers, or otherwise) he will serve all parties concerned by sending the name and address to the office of the National Council. In the search for

hopeful undertakings we must avoid minimizing the work of those whose personality or methods are disagreeable to us. They may be right and we may be wrong.

#### COURSES OF STUDY

In general the courses in the social studies all over the country now follow the recommendations of either the committees of the American Historical Association or those of the National Education Association. It is important that statistical information be available as to the present drift to or from these leading bodies of recommendations.

The reports of the committees of the American Historical Association<sup>1</sup> have been adopted in a large proportion of the schools, and have constituted the basis of the College Entrance Examination Board's papers. The reports of the committee of the National Education Association<sup>2</sup> have been largely of not completely adopted in a number of states, including Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Connecticut.

The work of both associations was done with the greatest possible care and thoroughness. In addition to sending out the usual questionnaires, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association conducted its investigation as follows:

"But to seek information through printed in"

rogatories is always somewhat unsatisfactory; and the committee therefore used other means also. Steps were taken to secure full discussions in the different educational associations of the country, in order that many teachers might become interested in the work of the committee and give needful information, and in order that there might be a free interchange of opinion on some of the more important problems that called for solution. Discussions on some portions of our report have been held by the New England's History Teachers' Association, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, The Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, the Round Table in History of the National Educational Association, and by other educational bodies, as well as at two meetings of the American Historical Association. Moreover, at various times in the past two years, different members of the committee have personally consulted teachers and talked the subject over with them. These efforts seem to demonstrate that we have not reached conclusions hastily, and that our report is not merely the expression of the theoretical aspirations of college professors who are unacquainted with the conditions of the secondary schools. It is in a very proper sense the result of careful examination and systematic inquiry concerning the secondary conditions of the country."

The committee of the National Education Association consisted not only of specialists in the social studies, but also of professors of education and school administrators. Its reports were prepared after equally careful study and investigation. Even when the report of 1916 was published, it was regarded as but a tentative expression issued for purposes of further criticism and evaluation. The most recent committee of the American Historical Association expressed itself in substantial agreement with the report of 1916, and other committees which are now at work are using it as a point of departure. The committee which prepared it is considering the advisability of thoroughly rewriting the report in the light of recent developments. They will welcome coöperation and will look to the National Council for help in finding those who can guide them on the basis of class-room experience.

The adoption and use of these different methods of organizing the social studies offer a sort of experimental enterprise. We do not know which system is better. Information is needed by those who are considering the adoption of one or the other, and it should be available through the office of the National Council. What are the reasons for changing from the one program to the other? Has the change produced the results expected? If not, what is the reason?

There is now a rather extended movement for a wholly new type of organization which will largely discard the older terminology,—history, civics, economics, geography, and work toward a single course in which the material and principles of all of these fields will be merged.

Professor L. C. Marshall, of the University of

Chicago, is engaged in preparing for the three grades of the Junior High School a body of material in line with the recommendations contained in "Social Studies in Secondary Education," a small volume\* issued this year by the University of Chicago Press. The material will consist, when completed, of textbooks collateral readings, and manuals for teachers. Some of it is already in print for distribution to those who are willing and able to offer helpful criticism; and it is being tested in actual classroom instruction. The material is characterized by a pretty complete departure from the usual texts in history or civics being constructed with a view to a continuous course for the three years, and offering a closely organized body of development from the beginning of the seventh grade to the end of the ninth.

Dr. H. O. Rugg and others, at the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, are experimenting with the organization of social studies for the Junior High School grades. Material is being drawn mainly from the fields of history, geography and civics, but additional material from economics, social ethics, sociology, etc., is included when this seems to be pertinent. In developing the course an effort has been made not to correlate these subjects, but to make of them one whole, well-rounded unit, viewing the subject matter as one body of closely related material. Integration rather than correlation is the goal set. The material in pamphlet form is being sent to a large number of schools for purposes of experimentation and evaluation.

Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne, of the Winnetka, Illinois, Schools, is organizing a fact course through the examination of eighteen periodicals covering the period 1905 to 1922. Through this examination over 75,000 items have been collected; and these have been organized for instruction, the process of organization being guided by class room tests of child reaction to the facts and by standard books of reference. Mr. Washburne says of the course:

"Its purpose is homely and definite in contrast to the rather general purposes of most social science courses. It does not consciously seek to show 'how people live together'; it does not attempt to train children to solve current social and political problems; it does not even try to cultivate the 'historical sense.' These purposes have a legitimate place. We are giving courses that cover some of them in our upper grades. The method of treatment of the fact material is influenced by them. But the purpose of the fact course itself is simply to make children familiar with those persons, places, and events which they are going to meet constantly in their conversation and reading."

Courses in current events are being given all over the country. Yet for one who wishes to learn something of the methods used and the results attained is often at a loss to know where to turn for information. D. C. Knowlton, January 19,<sup>10</sup> discusses the use of pictures in presenting this type of instruction; and J. L. Stockton, January 20, gives a record of an experiment in Wadleigh High School, New York.

The latter experimenting, extending over nearly a decade and involving thousands of pupils, is believed by Mr. Stoughton to have been well worth while. In his paper he suggests means of improving the course.

This notion of a merging of subjects has taken hold even in the universities. Committee G of the American Association of University Professors has recently issued a report<sup>5</sup> in which it describes introductory university courses in fourteen of the leading universities of the country. Recommendations 16 and 17 of this report may be quoted.

"The Committee believes also that the purpose numbered 16—the endeavor to give the student a stimulating and intelligent interest in the main human problems of the present day—is of very great importance. It is to be noted that this is the dominant purpose in special initiatory Freshman courses already given at Amherst, Columbia ("Introduction to Contemporary Civilization"), Dartmouth ("Problems of Citizenship"), Leland Stanford, Missouri, Rutgers and Williams. We believe firmly that direct collegiate treatment of the problems of the present day constitutes an excellent method of increasing the intellectual interest and raising the intellectual standards of undergraduates. And we believe that a course in which this is dominant should be given at the earliest practicable point in the undergraduate curriculum. But we do not feel that such a course has, for the typical undergraduate body, so specific a claim to presentation in the Freshman year as the two courses previously recommended.<sup>6</sup> If those two courses are to be given, it would hardly be possible or wise to introduce as well in the Freshman year a course on problems of the present day. Furthermore, such a course would yield better results to students who had previously taken the course in Thinking, recommended above, than to students who had not taken such a course. It seems to me, therefore, that the logical place for such a course is in the Sophomore year. In another portion of our General Report, of which General Report the Special Report now published forms a single portion, we shall return to the discussion of courses on problems of the present day, with the recommendation that such a course be given in the Sophomore year.

"The purpose numbered 5 above—the endeavor to survey the historical background of contemporary civilization—appears, in courses now given at Columbia ("Introduction to Contemporary Civilization"), Missouri, Rutgers, and Williams, as accessory to the purpose discussed in the preceding paragraph. To the question of the extent to which this accessory purpose should receive embodiment in a course on problems of the present day, we shall return in the portion of our General Report referred to above. We may note here, however, that we should in general favor a marked limitation and subordination of the historical portion of such a course."

Those who object to such courses as these for the universities believe that adequate work of this kind can be done in the schools. Therefore we have for consideration the claim of one group of scholars that subjects should be kept separate in the schools, and

that of another group that recognizes the need of composite courses but recommend their relegation to the schools. These two points have no means exhaust the catalogue, but they illustrate the problems which confront those who would seek the organization of courses in the social studies and the need of reserving judgment until a larger amount of information is at our disposal.

Several efforts have been made to secure recognition of the teaching of government in the organization of courses of study, but as yet with meagre result. A committee of the American Political Science Association published an extended report<sup>7</sup> after several years of painstaking study showing that instruction in the principles of political organization is almost wholly lacking. The appendix of this report, containing detailed reports from a score of states, is a mine of information on the common practice. A committee,<sup>8</sup> under the chairmanship of Superintendent William H. Maxwell of the New York City Schools, appointed by the National Municipal League, made a careful study of the teaching of city government. It reached the conclusion that at that time we did not know enough about what a city government should to make much progress with the teaching of it. Since then the study of municipal government has greatly progressed, but still a recent report of the schools of one of the largest cities calls attention to the failure to teach government there. Another committee of the American Political Science Association, under the chairmanship of Professor W. B. Munro, reported in 1921, after two years of work, confining itself to the twelfth year course. Its effect is yet to be determined.<sup>9</sup>

#### THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Whatever method is followed in organizing the courses, no one who is acquainted with the educational situation will deny that it is a lamentable fact that no outstanding efforts are available for record here to train those who are to teach the social studies. Some discussion of our failure in this direction may be found in Bulletin 3, 1922, of the Bureau of Education, and in the May, 1922, issue of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

One interesting undertaking may here be recorded. The University of California is seeking to organize a course in civic relations and ideals to meet the requirement of the state that all prospective teachers of any subject show that they have subjected themselves to such a course. The experiment is discussed on p. 856 of this issue. Since elementary school teachers are not specialists, but handle all subjects, it is apparent that the California experiment may be one way of securing some training in social studies for these teachers.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING

Not only are efforts being made to develop the course of study, but the methods of classroom teaching in our field are also under examination. Some consider discussion of methods of teaching too superficial for serious attention, believing that each teacher instinctively develops the best method for his

use. But where so many thoughtful people believe that the technique of instruction is ~~important enough~~ for ~~experimental~~ research, it is the duty of the National Council to contribute to their efforts if it can do so through collecting information and facilitating its exchange.

In December 16<sup>10</sup> Miss F. M. Morehouse points out that there are at least fourteen distinct types of recitation, each taking many forms and many different degrees of difficulty, but clearly teachable in all stages of history instruction from the primary school through the university. Like the various ways of indicting lays, every one of them may be right.

"Among the types of organization that aim to emphasize education for the individual is the general plan known as Supervised Study. Direction of Study takes place now and then in every school; but supervised study means much more than occasional direction offers to pupils who require assistance. Supervised study is a daily undertaking. Every period of the day is organized for the purpose of directing the details of a learning process. Studying is regarded as working on a job under the direction of the superintendent of the shop. The hours wasted in ignorant haphazard, discouraging, and all too often unsuccessful home study are spent in class study where a wise teacher directs the learning of the new assignment and reduces to a minimum the difficulties encountered in mastering a topic or problem."<sup>11</sup>

Supervised study in the social studies is being made the subject of extended experiment in the high school of the University of Chicago under the direction of Professor R. M. Tryon, Mr. H. C. Hill and others. In this experiment the teachers of English are also coöperating with a view to determining in how far the social studies and English may be profitably handled jointly.

Discussion of the experience of others may be found in the files of the HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, as follows: Miss Hallie Farmer, February 19; A. S. Barr, January 21; Earle U. Rugg, April 20; F. W. Carrier, November 20; R. A. Mackie, May 19; M. E. Branum, March 20; R. W. Hatch, February 20; J. B. Lambert, October 22.

It is of the utmost importance, if the various types of recitation are going to be evaluated, that experimentation be conducted on a larger scale than has yet been attempted for the social studies.

Miss Bessie L. Pierce has made a beginning with a controlled experiment in the socialized recitation, which she discusses as follows:

"The most promising attempt to overcome the mechanical features inherent in the conventional question-and-answer method of recitation seems to lie in a socialized presentation of the subject-matter. A realization that the class period can provide for contacts similar to those of the workaday world of later life has led the educator to readjust his ideas of the possibilities of the recitation and to seek for ways in which to develop the social consciousness of group. This has directed us away from the old

question-and-answer method, in which there is emphasis upon teacher-activity and a tendency toward pupil-passivity; a method which gives opportunity for development to the one least needing it. The socialized plan of presenting subject-matter to the pupil seeks to avoid the usual results of the old plan, which results may be summarized as lack of interest in the pupil, slight absorption of the subject-matter, restlessness, and obviously very little group feeling."

"Because of its social content, history and its allied subjects should be taught in the manner most productive of such development. There has been too much stress upon mere facts, with a disregard of the potential value of the social studies. The pupil should be trained to study the working of social phenomena in order to form the habit of making social judgments. He should be trained in tolerance and dispassionate opinions. In other words, he should be trained in socialization. At no time can this be tried with more tangible results than at the age of the high school boy and girl, for it is this impressionable period which affords the opportunity to teach the young boy and girl how to become functioning members of society.

"What then, should be the qualities of the socialized work which will distinguish it from the usual 'pounding-in-of-information' plan? In the first place each pupil should be made to feel his responsibility for the conduct of the class during the whole recitation hour. Herein is found the development of the community instinct as distinguished from an individualistic attitude. The pupil should feel himself an integral part of the group, should feel that it is his duty as well as his privilege to contribute to the fullest of his capacity and to use his influence to lead others to do likewise. He should be trained to assume the part of critic, though always in the spirit of good will. In the second place, there should be a development of self-expression and of individuality through the necessity of active participation for each person. Thirdly, the work should be so organized in the lesson assignment that the time lost in questioning in the ordinary recitation can be spent in class discussion. In the fourth place, the work should be so assigned that there will not be a departure from the matter in hand.

"Various forms of socialization have been tried by different teachers. The most common type is seen in the selection of a leader from the class who shall conduct the work. In other words, this leader is to serve as the teacher, questioning the students, acting as arbiter in disputes, serving as critic, and even in some instances assuming the rôle of disciplinarian. When this is done, some teachers feel that the class has become 'socialized.' However, it is doubtful whether this plan in itself makes for socialization, whether or not the elimination of the teacher is the chief requisite for the most effective socialized work. Cannot the teacher play an important, though unobtrusive part in its direction? It would seem that the process of socialization is not necessarily effected simply by the elimination of the teacher and the

selection of a pupil to carry out the ordinary functions of the teacher, but by other features of the recitation. After all, the teacher in any form of class work is an essential factor for success. In the working of the socialized recitation, the teacher is no longer the autocrat of the question-and-answer method, where she absorbs the greater part of the hour promoting discussion according to her developed attitude toward the work. On the other hand, by making her a mere spectator, the purpose of the recitation could not be fully accomplished. Theoretically, in the socialized work, the teacher may be very well considered a negligible factor, but actually this cannot be done. The organization of the class must be the pupils', the responsibility of well-doing must be theirs, the enthusiasm invoked must emanate from them, but the real pilot must be the teacher.

"Whatever the outward form of the socialization, it is the end attained which finally determines the efficacy of any plan; and that recitation may well be called 'socialized' which presents the subject-matter in a social form and is of immediate as well as of future value to the child. If the class is taken into the confidence of the teacher and the scheme is explained carefully and thoroughly, the average high school class will cooperate well, irrespective of the length of time in which they have been taught by other methods. The organization should be such that the machinery is simple and should work as though well oiled, but never in a purely mechanical manner.

"Charges against extreme socialization have been made with justice by its critics. Some socialized work leads to incessant talking by the pupils, to a disputatious attitude, to a tendency to wander from the subject-matter, to unnecessary noises, and to a monopoly of the recitation by the good pupils. These defects are much more common in the socialized plan where the teacher gives the reins entirely into the hands of a student leader than in one in which she exercises the function of leadership.

"The class procedure under the question-and-answer plan, however, is not free from certain defects which are often charged against the socialized type. Monopoly of discussion by the brightest might be common to both plans. If the teacher attempts to curtail the activity of the ambitious by leading on the more diffident by questions, a lack of interest is likely to result on the part of the better pupils. It would seem that this common defect can be obviated most easily in the socialized method in which the topical or problem form of assignment is pursued, granting much freedom in extensive preparation. Lack of spontaneity is surely more characteristic of that form of work in which the direction comes primarily from the teacher and not from the pupils. Alertness and activity are without doubt found to a far greater degree in a socialized form than in that where it is quite an easy thing for 'B' to sleep after 'A' has been called upon.

"The plan of socialization which the writer has found most productive of good has been to seat the class in such a manner that the pupils face each other,

two rows having their backs to the teacher's desk, and facing two other rows. This tends to make the pupils talk to each other and not to recite to the teacher only. Great care is taken in giving the assignments, first, in order that questions by the teacher, except for settling disputed points or clearing up mistakes, may be eliminated, and second, that it may serve as an outline from which the pupil may carry on his recitation. The class is directed to ask questions about doubtful points, to demand explanations for statements, to criticize, and to amplify statements. Occasionally the teacher does not ask a question throughout the hour, but at other times she finds it necessary to emphasize certain neglected phases of the work. She usually sits at her desk, taking very little part except to call upon people for contributions. Yet her unobtrusive presence serves as a stimulus and guide to the class, and seems to obviate many of the defects charged against some socialized plans. To cultivate a healthy rivalry, an alphabetical division of the class into two groups for the purpose of checking each other on recitations is made. Each group selects a leader who records the number of recitations made each week by each individual of the class and the report is posted on Friday, although the grade for the work done is determined by the teacher. The publicity of the number of recitations made by individuals, as well as the rivalry of the groups, aids in keeping the class alert and anxious to recite.

"In order to determine definitely the success or failure of the socialized plan, a group of pupils in eleventh grade American history was divided into two sections. The division was based upon mental tests, each receiving, so far as possible, pupils of equal mental capacity. No experiment of the character attempted can prove or disprove conclusively the value of any type of recitation, for it cannot record the personality of the teacher. However, an attempt was made to select two teachers of approximate equality in instructional ability. Another difficulty lay in the fact that all the pupils had hitherto been pursuing the socialized work and, hence, had been trained to respond in class-work with more readiness than is customary in the average question-and-answer plan.

"The data obtained represent a greater efficacy throughout for the socialized method. For twenty days the same work was pursued in both classes, three days being taken out for test periods. The class pursuing the question-and-answer plan adhered much more closely to the textbook plan than did the socialized section, who were instructed through a problematic form of assignment to increase their information by means of all available resources. At the end of the four-week period, the same fact examination, to test the extent of information imparted, was given in both groups, an average of 87.2-5 per cent being obtained by the socialized class and 70 per cent representing the average grade of the pupils in the question-and-answer method.<sup>18</sup> The sum total of minutes spent in oral recitation in the socialized group throughout the period recorded was 358 to 444



in the question-and-answer section. During this time, in the socialized division, questions asked by the teacher to elicit information or to develop a point were 40 to 416 in the opposite group. In the former group there were 182 recitations and in the latter 240, with an average daily attendance of 14 and 17 pupils respectively. The number of pupils failing to recite showed a startling result favorable to the socialized plan, being 8 to 110. The amount of participation of the teacher in the recitation in proportion to that of the pupil resulted in a ratio of 89 to 172 in the socialized to 416 to 226 in the question-and-answer class.<sup>14</sup> It is almost trite to remark upon the amount of time consumed by the teacher when the question method is pursued, yet it may be well to call attention to the fact that a good teacher asks at the rate of at least one question a minute and that a poor one would tend to ask several more in the same time."<sup>15</sup>

No general discussion can prove the superiority of the socialized recitation to the old question-and-answer plan as well as a comparison of stenographic<sup>16</sup> reports of the two types of work in the same school. Both classes were accustomed to a socialized method, yet one teacher, new in the school, felt that he must control the work visibly and that he could not get information from the pupils without frequent questions.

#### EXAMINATIONS

After the recitation comes the examination. It seems to be universally held that our methods of examining in the social studies completely miss the point, not testing at all the main purposes of instruction. This has been stated so often without contradiction that the time seems to have arrived for reform. Professor Henry Johnson's discussion of the conduct of examinations<sup>17</sup> has been echoed here and there, but neither in the Regents Examinations of the State of New York nor in the College Entrance Board Examinations, nor elsewhere, apparently does improvement seem to have been made.

Miss F. M. Morehouse, November 17; M. J. Burr, May 19; Miss Ellen L. Osgood, June 18; have discussed the problem to some extent. Earle U. Rugg, June 20, discusses the character and value of standardized tests in history.

One difficulty which confronts those who would develop better methods of examination is the fact that we are not clear as to the objectives we are seeking. We do not know, or rather we are not in agreement, as to what we are seeking; therefore we cannot settle upon a method of finding out whether we have accomplished it. As soon as the Joint Commission provides a sufficiently definite set of statements of our objectives, or as soon as we arrive at agreement through some other agency, we shall then be able to approach more rapidly the organization of our methods of examination.

In the meantime it is of the utmost importance for those who are experimenting in this problem, on either a small or a large scale, or who have ideas on the subject, to send them to our clearing house in order that an exchange of stimulus and suggestion may take place.

#### WHAT IS POSSIBLE?

The organization of courses of study, the preparation of material for the pupil's use, the development of class-room methods, encouragement of pupil activities, even the selection of attainable objectives,—all of these must after all be informed and influenced by a careful examination of what it is possible for pupils of certain ages to do. One hears much dogmatic pronouncement about what children of ten or fifteen years will find possible, but there has been little information collected on the subject.

Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College, Columbia University, has been engaged for a number of years in experiments in elementary and secondary schools to determine the range of possible and desirable training in such fundamentals of historical study as the sense of evidence, the sense of development and continuity, the sense of historical perspective and the historical sense in general. Tests of pupils without specific training in these fundamentals have yielded almost uniformly negative results from the first grade to the last year of the high school. Similar tests repeated after from four to six weeks of training have shown the same pupils exercising, without apparent strain upon their intelligence, powers which in the earlier tests they did not seem to possess. No account of these experiments has as yet been published.

<sup>1</sup> Committee of Seven, *The Study of History in the Schools*, Macmillan, 1909.

<sup>2</sup> Committee of Five, *The Study of History in Secondary Schools*, Macmillan, 1911.

<sup>3</sup> Committee of Eight, *The Study of History in the Elementary Schools*, Scribner's, 1911.

<sup>4</sup> Community Civics, Bulletin 23 for 1915, and Social Studies in Secondary Education, Bulletin 28 for 1916 of the National Bureau of Education, were prepared by the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.

<sup>5</sup> Pages 5-6 of the Report.

<sup>6</sup> Prepared by a Commission of The Association of College Schools of Business of which Professor Marshall is Chairman.

<sup>7</sup> Bulletin of the Association for October, 1922.

<sup>8</sup> A course in thinking similar to courses offered in Columbia and Johns Hopkins; and a course in the Nature of Man and of the World, from the standpoint of natural science, offered at Dartmouth and in a part of the Columbia course.

<sup>9</sup> *The Teaching of Government*, Macmillan, 1916.

<sup>10</sup> Proceedings of the Conference for Good City Government, 1900 to 1905.

<sup>11</sup> *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, February, 1922.

<sup>12</sup> In the following paragraphs frequent reference will be made to papers which have appeared in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. "December 16" means *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for December, 1916, etc.

<sup>13</sup> Quoted from Alfred E. Hall—Quest's introduction to Miss Mabel E. Simpson's "Supervised Study in American History," pp. 3-4.

<sup>14</sup> Republished from the University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 18.

<sup>15</sup> A disinterested person graded the papers, not the teachers of the groups.

<sup>16</sup> This was computed by comparing the number of questions asked with the responses by the pupils.

<sup>17</sup> Stevens, Romiett, *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction*.

<sup>18</sup> These stenographic reports appeared in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for May, 1922.

<sup>19</sup> *The Teaching of History*, Chapter XVI.

# Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies

The following papers are but preliminary and tentative to a serious effort to determine what are the characteristic contributions of several fields of scholarship to teaching in the schools. A group of the leading specialists is engaged in formulating a statement which will doubtless be authoritative and finished.

Almost as soon as the movement for the National Council began to take shape, it became evident that such a statement must be secured. The officers of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland offered to devote one session of their annual meeting on May 6, 1922, to a discussion of the problem and invited the secretary of the National Council to solicit papers for discussion. An explanatory note, which will be found below, was prepared and sent to a number of persons in the effort to secure their coöperation. The statement for history was made by Professor Henry Johnson about whose equipment to make it nothing need be said. The president of the American Sociological Society secured from Professors R. L. Finney and E. C. Hayes, the committee of that association on relations with the schools, the statement for their subject. The statement for geography was supplied by President W. W. Atwood, then president of the National Council of Geography Teachers. Professor L. C. Marshall, chairman of the committee on economics in the schools of the American Economic Association, supplied the paper on economics. The secretary was unfortunate in not being able to secure a statement from one of the several leading political scientists to whom he applied, and was obliged to prepare the statement for that subject himself.

After the meeting of May 6, it was possible to supplement the statements for two of the subjects which have been under most discussion by reason of their not having been as fully recognized in secondary education as some of the others, with an additional point of view. Statements were therefore secured for geography from Professor J. Russell Smith and for sociology from Professor Franklin H. Giddings.<sup>1</sup>

Any discussion of the objectives in education is in danger of going to either of two extremes. It may move in the direction of such general aspirations or hopes that it will not help the practical mechanic in education who needs definite guidance; or it may be stimulated by such particularism of interest in single subjects that it cannot be built into the system of instruction. General statements are useful if they can be analyzed and are analyzed into their constituent elements in order that they may be adjusted to each other in organic unity. There is no general agreement as yet on the matter of the organization of a course of study in man's social relations. Therefore statements of objectives must be patiently dissected to their last detail in order to determine whether it is better to offer them to the pupils in the schools separately or in compounds. The time has passed for dogmatic statements about separate courses or

for merged ones. We must take time and use effort enough to decide on the basis of careful analysis of what it is we wish to accomplish.

<sup>1</sup>These statements are expository not controversial. Professor Giddings has not seen the statement of the other sociologists, and is not "answering" it.

## HISTORY

BY PROFESSOR HENRY JOHNSON

It is a fact of some significance that ever since the beginning of school instruction in history, about three hundred years ago, the reasons for teaching history have, with rare exceptions, preceded and determined the choice of the materials to be taught and the manner of teaching. The general result of this sequence has been to make of history in the schools anything that history seemed to be good for, from disconnected fables about things that never happened to an orderly story of actual human development. Just now in some quarters of the United States history is anything that history seems to be good for, with a vehemence of individual or racial or national or social or industrial or religious bias, an intolerance of any conflicting bias, and a violence in forcing a particular bias upon others, hitherto almost unknown in American discussions of history.

The pioneers of history teaching introduced another habit which still persists and is still the occasion of much confusion. History as anything that history is good for, must of course serve the particular end for which it was created. But, having established that, the creators have frequently taken the further step of claiming for their particular kind of history the special virtues of all other kinds of history. It was a misunderstanding of this condition which, some years before the war, led one of those numerous discoverers of the aimlessness of American education to count the various reasons alleged for teaching history. There were, he found, thirty-nine, and thirty-nine different reasons for teaching a single subject made, in his pedagogical aggregate just one reason for not teaching the subject at all.

There are in fact more than thirty-nine reasons for teaching history, but there are also more than thirty-nine varieties of history. The relation is necessarily intimate, since the reasons for teaching history have so generally determined the nature of the history to be taught. It is still legal, if not always moral, to make of history anything that may be required for direct and immediate use by individuals or races or nations or industrial or social or religious organizations, but it is time to stop arguing about history in general as something with essentially the same meaning for all sorts and conditions of men, including one-eyed educational reformers. There is no such history. There are only *kinds* of history, as many or as few as the needs and desires of our changing daily world may suggest.

It is legal, and I think entirely moral, to adopt our kind of history for this discussion, a conception now commonly held by historical scholars, and applied by those among them who write school textbooks in history, so far as public sentiment and the courage of publishers permit. The ruling idea of this kind of history is the idea of development. Every condition or event is viewed as a stage in a continuous process of becoming. Every condition or event is conceived as related to something that went before and to something that came after. In any series the importance of conditions and events is measured by the extent to which they help to represent and to explain some course of development. It may be the development of an individual, of a nation, of government, of religion, of education, of commerce, of cookery, of dressmaking, of children's toys—always it is development, a development that implies continuity, and a continuity that implies unity. The ideal, not yet attained and perhaps unattainable, is accurately to represent and adequately to explain the whole development of civilization.

Development, continuity, unity—these three words sum up the unique contribution of history to human knowledge of humanity through the ages and furnish a clue to the nature of what we call human progress. If they are true words, if we *are* in the midst of a continuous process of becoming, then history that traces development is an indispensable instrument for understanding our stage in the process, our changing customs, our changing institutions and ideals, our changing selves and other changing human beings now living and working in the world.

And if it is wise economy to seek as our controlling reason for teaching any subject that contribution which is unique, beyond the province of any other subject, and of fundamental, vital concern to human thought and action, then the controlling reason for teaching history is clear. History alone can convey impressions of development, of continuity, of unity, of that grand ceaseless process of becoming of which every human atom is a part, and history can thus teach us, in a way and to an extent possible for no other branch of human learning, whence we came, whither we are going, and what we ought to be and to do while we are going. Surely, such a contribution is a good, a sufficient, and a compelling reason for teaching throughout the school course the kind of history that traces development.

There is, I am well aware, a tradition, more or less consecrated by psychology, that the reasons for teaching history must vary with the stage of instruction, that they cannot be for a first grade in the elementary school what they may be for a senior class in the high school, and that such concepts as development, continuity, and unity can at best have little application below the college. This tradition is a near relative of that other tradition which holds that history cannot, like other school studies, be so graded as to present definite stages from the less to the more difficult. The general answer is that there are first steps in the kind of history that traces development

as simple and as near the direct experience of children of six as the first steps in any other kind of history or in any other kind of study. As for further steps, enough can be done, in rudimentary form, with the essentials involved to leave average children at the end of the eighth year of school life really feeling that history does describe and explain a continuous process, and ready to apply what they feel in their judgment of current conditions and events.

We must not read development abstractly. We must remember the possibility and the necessity of proceeding in school practice by means of concrete examples. We must provide conditions for definite, vivid impressions of actual human beings living together, commanding one another, serving one another, going to war together, making peace, organizing a church, supporting a school, constructing a government, petitioning for new laws, protesting against old laws, obeying or defying social conventions, striking for higher wages, seeking recreation and amusement. In this way any teacher of average skill may reasonably hope in time to convey definite impressions of what society as a whole has been and is in its continuous process of becoming and of what some at least of the causes and consequences of social action are.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> A fuller statement of Professor Johnson's views may be found in Chapter III, "Aims and Values," of his book "The Teaching of History". Other statements bearing on this question may be found in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for June, 1916.

## GOVERNMENT

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON

1. The following paper is addressed to students of education and of history, economics, sociology, and geography, who are engaged in determining what the several fields of scholarship, which contribute to the social studies have to offer to the curriculum-maker. It is a tentative statement, made for purposes of discussion and evaluation, of what one teacher of government suggests as a part of the contribution of the study of politics.

2. By way of introduction and for initial definiteness, it may be said that all study of government is a study of organization; and that all organization is a matter of rules and rulers, of the nature of law and the nature of its administration; and that organization for democracy, as distinguished from other organizations, must stress the differentia that this organization must be adjusted to prevailing public opinion and human character *as at the time developed*.

3. The difference between one who has been really educated in the art of politics and the one who has not is that the former respects real law, looks forward to the time when it can be administered justly, and seeks such organization as will bring about a due adjustment of the legislative process to the character and opinion of those who live under the laws enacted. Those who would put the teaching of government into the schools must put in somewhere and somehow an arrangement which will result in the rising gen-

eration understanding and willing a rule of law and seeking such administration of the law that the community shall be served. The rising citizen must think in terms of an organized society, guided by general rules, enacted and administered in the common interest.

4. Those who are not so educated tend to retain the primitive instincts which result in anarchy, or special privilege, or devotion to bureaucratic paternalistic monarchy in their impatience of legal process due to their ignorance of the nature of real and permanent progress. The anarchist differs from the democrat in that he distrusts organization and a rule through organized enforcement of the will of the majority. The devotee of special privilege differs from the democrat in that he is impatient of the gradual adjustment of the law and its administration to human character and opinion as thus far evolved and educated. All of these primitive instincts must be educated out if civilization is to go forward.

5. In the teaching of organization, it is necessary that there be implanted in the minds of pupils the nature of law; the best plans as yet evolved for the enactment of law; and the best principles for the enforcement of law. But the growing mind must also be introduced to the unsolved problems and shown that they are *unsolved*: what are the wise limits to home rule, to centralization, to paternalism; what is meant by public opinion; what are some of the limits imposed by human character in the year 1922. They must also be trained in patience with public action and the social process; and optimism for the future of democracy in so far as optimism may be a matter of reason. All of these are ways of dealing with the idea of organization as limited by human psychology or character or behavior.

6. This is no place for an attempt to define political science. The curious are referred to Professor J. W. Garner's *Introduction to Political Science*, Chapter I. But it seems clear that the art of government deals with two definite problems: the one is a question of scientific management, the other is one of human behavior. These two are closely interrelated. Teaching government is not a matter merely of description of governments or theories as to its origin as an end, important as these are as ancillary to the student and promoter of political science. The art of politics is a matter of the relation between getting the work of the community done and the adjustment of the best methods of doing it to the peculiarities of the voters. Those who teach even the elements of this subject must have these two considerations always in view.

7. Can government be taught in the elementary grades? The present writer ventures on an answer with the greatest hesitation but answers "yes." The basis of government is honesty, intelligence, industry, and willingness to merge one's welfare in that of one's fellows. To train for the first three of these is no more the duty of the teacher of government than of other teachers. The last is directly related to the teaching of government with democracy in

view. We do not refer to a flabby and sentimental willingness; nor to a self-denying and pacifist willingness. Reference is to a conscious part in a coöperative enterprise of law, order and public service. To develop this trait is to teach government, though no ruler's name is memorized and no state is ever mentioned. Without this trait all talk of democracy is but sounding brass and tinkling cymbal. It is a sham. What may be added in the first six grades to this training the expert in education must determine.

8. Can the principles of scientific organization be taught in the high school? If they cannot they are not democratic, for the graduates of the high schools are the people on whom the community must depend, and a large majority of them will never be introduced to these principles if they are not introduced in the high schools. It would be preposterous to say that the hundreds of men and women who as political scientists have been devoting their lives to the study of organizing society for a rule of law have reached no generalizations which are worth communicating to the rising generations now being trained in our high schools. The pupils are there introduced to the principles of chemistry and mathematics; they can also be introduced to the rules and limits of human organization.

9. It is of course necessary for the teacher of government in the schools to teach such of the present facts of government as is possible in order to orient the rising voter in his present political environment; but no one can teach the charters of some of our cities without digging into a hopeless mess of confusion unless he associates with such charters the principles incorporated in such a document as the model city charter of the National Municipal League for the sake of constructive, as opposed to merely destructive, criticism. No one can teach our state constitution profitably without associating with this teaching such constructive thought as is being incorporated in the model state constitution now under preparation. These documents present the principles of political organization,—of adjustment to public opinion and character.

10. The teaching of government then is training the young in the *principles* of organization in so far as these have been worked out, and in the patient recognition of the *present character of men* as determining what type of organization is possible. The elementary ground work for such teaching is training the youngest pupils in a realization that democracy means merging one's welfare in that of the group through a due submission to the rules of the community and those who administer these rules; and an enlightened participation in the efforts to make our public organization called government a useful institution.

## ECONOMICS

BY PROFESSOR L. C. MARSHALL

The appropriate contribution of economics to social studies in secondary schools should apparently be

discussed with the following considerations in the background of our thinking:

1. There are certain educational values such as stimulation of the power of clean thinking, etc., which may appropriately be claimed for almost any academic subject which is decently presented. Economics should not, therefore, lay claim to any particular merit in this particular field, if its sponsors have any sense of modesty.

2. The contribution of any specialized branch of social studies should be considered in terms of the general purpose of social studies in the secondary curriculum. As I see it, this purpose may be stated somewhat as follows:

The purpose of introducing social studies in the secondary curriculum is that of giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society. The range of this statement is very broad. For example: the contribution of knowledge and physical environment to our social living is quite as worthy of attention as are the principles of economics or government. Parenthetically, it may be noted that, "awareness," "appreciation," and "understanding" come only when descriptive facts are presented in their relationships.

The foregoing is, as was indicated, merely background material. As for the peculiar contribution which economics may make, a collection of opinion is worth more than my own individual judgment and I accordingly present certain samples of statements from representative economists.

Professor Carver, of Harvard University, makes the following statement:

"The fundamental problem of economics is how to make a living. As modified by social conditions, it becomes, how to support large numbers of people and support them well. At the beginning of this problem is that of choosing what to do in order to make a living. The problem of choosing what to do, however, divides itself up into three special problems: First, what wants to satisfy. This involves choosing among the various conflicting desires of the same person. Second, what means of satisfaction to choose. Third, what methods of getting the means of satisfaction.

"Each of these choices implies that under the circumstances of time and place one desire may be for the time being more important than another; also that one means of satisfaction may be more desirable than another; and third, that one method of getting the means of satisfaction may be more effective than another. Always, and in each case, the problem relates to the special circumstances of time and place.

"The desire for air, for example, may be just as important as the desire for bread; but in the circum-

stances under which most of us live, the desire for air is fully satisfied, whereas the desire for bread is not. Under such circumstances it is obviously more important that we choose to get more bread than to get more air. As to methods also, it is more important at one time and place to use one method than another.

"You ask what contribution economics can make that can be comparable to the sense of continuity which the historian thinks that he makes. It seems to me that the contribution of economics is almost contained in the word. In the largest and most important sense the contribution of economics should be a clear conception of the meaning of economy. Economy means to choose, under the circumstances of time and place, the most important of numerous alternatives,—the most important desire, the most important means of satisfying desire, the most effective method of acquiring the means. There are perfectly clear and definite principles which must determine each of these choices. Another way of saying the same thing would be to say that economics should give a clear conception of the meaning of value. To evaluate one's desires is to choose the most important. To evaluate the means of satisfying desire is to place them in the order of relative importance; to evaluate the various methods of acquiring means is to place them in the order of their relative effectiveness. However, I see no advantage in multiplying alternative words or phrases. I come back, therefore, to the proposition that the contribution of economics should be to give a clear conception of the meaning of economy or what it means to economize."

Professor Earl Dean Howard, of Northwestern University, makes the following statement:

"The purpose of the social studies in secondary education should be the improvement of the student as an individual, a citizen, and a social unit. The development of industrialism, with its social complexities, increases the need for greater coördination of individual activities which are the results of a coördination of individual wills. Leadership and the willingness to aid and follow leadership intelligently is the method of accomplishing such coördination. Social intelligence is a matter of accurate knowledge of human relationships, especially the economic relationships of our business system. The adjustment of the individual to his social economic environment—his economic relationships—largely determines the satisfactoriness of his life, howsoever measured, therefore, his education should give him the greatest possible intellectual competency in this direction."

Professor Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, contributes this:

"The contribution which economics ought to make to social studies in the secondary education is that of saving young men and women from the acceptance of unsound principles of business. Much of the effort of society is devoted to overcoming consequences of the foolish notions entertained by uneducated men

and women, and many of those foolish notions have to do with business principles."

Professor Willcox, of Cornell University, makes this statement:

"The contribution of economics seems to me to center about a realization of our relations to others and of the growing interdependence of mankind in the ordinary business of living. The average child and the average unenlightened American family are excessively self-centered, individualistic, and not trained to take instinctively the social point of view. Economics rightly taught is better able than any other study to give this point of view; wrongly taught, it exaggerates the self-centeredness of the individual or the family."

Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale University, contributes the following:

"I think that the contribution which economics may make to social studies in the public schools should be along the lines of combating current and dangerous fallacies and substituting a correct understanding of money, capital, and distribution. Also to show the evils which need correction."

### SOCIOLOGY

BY PROFESSORS R. L. FINNEY AND E. C. HAYES

The practical function of sociology is to render society *telic*. Social science aspires, in the interest of human welfare, to blue print the social forms of the future; its hope is to guide social evolution in harmony with the needs of human nature. More concretely, the function of social science is to formulate scientific solutions for our social problems and promote their adoption as reforms.

But, social changes wait upon changes in the social mind. In fact, that is what they *are*. Blue prints of a better society are functionless so long as they exist only in the minds of social scientists. They must exist also in the minds of a large number of the people. Only as the ideas, ideals, and habits requisite to a different society are imparted to the members of the community, can a different society appear. To pour public opinion into the new moulds is quite as essential to *telic* social evolution, therefore, as to draft the blue prints. More concretely, our social problems can be solved only as the people are able to unite upon scientific programs for their solution; and they can so unite only as they know what they are. And with that knowledge of social solutions must go the appropriate ideals and habits to make them work.

Just as some elements of astronomy which are taught to geography classes dispel the notion that the earth is flat and stationary, so some of the simplest and most thoroughly established elements of sociology serve to remove popular misconceptions about life. These elements of sociology are as important in helping people to understand the facts of economics and politics as anything that is taught by these special sciences and are equally applicable to all of the other phases of social life. Sociology shows how far and by what method the content of life for everyone of

us is derived through social contacts. It shows the types of causes by which the prevalent opinions, sentiments and practices of a society are molded, and the causes which must be controlled, in so far as they can be controlled, in order to modify the social life. *It shows not only what is to be desired, but goes far toward showing the extent to which and the method by which the desired results may be obtained.*

Sociology shows that as we learn the language of our group before we are six years old, so before we are capable of rational discrimination upon such themes we usually learn our religious, political, and moral ideas and sentiments. Understanding of these facts including the operation not only of tradition, but also of propaganda and prestige, is the only scientific and adequate cure for the prejudices and bigotry which separate social classes, sects, parties and nations and the only adequate preparation for open-minded citizenship and social coöperation.

Sociology shows the amazing variability of human customs and institutions among people of the same race under different conditions. Thereby it reveals the almost unmeasured possibilities of change and the fact that mass opinions and sentiments, although they do not change without a cause, may change to almost any degree. Thus sociology reveals the possibilities as well as the methods of progress.

Sociology, by solid facts, shows the nature and grounds of ethical requirements as no metaphysical speculation can do and supplies motives for ethical conduct that cannot be dispelled by advancing knowledge, but which gather strength as social understanding is increased.

Each of the social sciences has its essential place. Sociology differs from economics in that it contributes toward the understanding of the production and distribution of wealth a more adequate realization of the part which is played by socially evolved human nature and by custom. It differs from the more recent development in economics, yet more widely in the degree of attention which it gives to the results produced by the facts of production and distribution. Economics properly regards these facts as problems to be explained. Sociology regards them rather as causes of more general results appearing in the social life. Sociology differs from history in that instead of giving its attention to specific persons, incidents and events, it studies general movements and universal tendencies and because it is occupied less with the past than with the present and with the immediate future. It differs from political science in that instead of discussing the mere machinery of government it studies the practical problems to which political action must be applied. It differs yet more essentially from all of these in that it presents the principles which are applicable to the understanding and the modification of life in all of its aspects, including the development of language, religion, morality, political and economic institutions, and the customs which relate to recreation, ceremony and general culture; and it applies these principles to the specific problems which confront our nation and our time.

For the molding of public opinion the school is, of course, one of the most potent agencies. The aim of social science teaching in the high schools is, therefore, to impart to the rising generation what knowledge of social solutions the social scientists already possess, together with the corresponding habits and ideals, with a view to rendering society *telic*. A consensus of opinion of competent social scientists would doubtless furnish the best available guidance as to what the specific contents of the high school curriculum in social science ought to be.

### GEOGRAPHY

BY PRESIDENT WALLACE W. ATWOOD

If *continuity* and *change* may be considered the key words in the study of history, if *organisation* and *service* represent the central thoughts in political science, and the *practical problems of existence* the central thoughts in economics, the word *environment* may perhaps carry the central thought in the study of geography.

We have long since passed the day when the study of geography was limited to the definition of capes, islands, peninsulas, to the naming of capitals and the bounding of states. We have passed the stage when simple place geography or sailor geography formed the basis of our study of geography. With the development of the scientific study of the landscape, physiography has been organized; with the scientific study of the atmosphere, meteorology and climatology have been developed; with the scientific study of our natural resources (including the soils, the forests, the waterways, and the water power, together with that great storehouse of resources beneath the surface of the earth), there has developed economic geography. The study of geography has, therefore, taken on a national phase, and is being conducted in a thoroughly scientific manner.

With the crowding of the world with people, with the appropriation by men of all the lands and all the resources which are worth the having, the problems of existence have become more clearly evident, and the chief interest in geography has come to be centered in human geography. It is today a study of man's endeavor to adjust himself, or adapt himself, to an ever-changing environment. For civilized people that environment has grown larger and larger as the world has grown smaller and smaller. Improved means of transportation, and improved means of communication have made the environment of each civilized people world-wide in its extent.

With the organization of geography about the study of one natural region after another, a thoroughly scientific method of approach and development has been evolved. One region becomes complementary to another. The seasonal changes in the northern and southern hemispheres cause complementary relations. One land is suited for farming; another is a mining district; one is an industrial center; another a grazing land. These natural regions on the earth, with their populations, may be considered as human habitats, within each of which the people are enacting, as those

on a great stage, the drama of life. Those in one region wish to develop commercial, political and social relations with those in another region, and the world is drawn closer and closer together. International relations are involved, and the largest of all economic problems are developed. Geography, therefore, should furnish to the youth of the Junior High School, in his interpretation of history, an appreciation of the influence which geographic factors have had upon people; an appreciation of the influence such factors are having today upon people in their economic life, and will have upon people as they press forward to make greater use of the resources on the earth, and establish more intimate economic, political and social relations. The proper study of geography should lead the youth to a more intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the various problems that the different peoples of the world are facing, and in the end to a broader and more noble-minded citizenship in the world.

### THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF SOCIOLOGY

BY PROFESSOR FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS

Why should we study sociology? In particular why should sociology be required or recommended as a school and college subject? These questions should have careful and specific answer.

The substance of answer is: We should study sociology because it shows us how inexhaustibly interesting, as well as how complicated and often difficult, is the game of chess that we call life, and the importance of moves that are not obvious to untrained players.

This game is complicated because it is necessarily played within and subject to an intricate scheme of players and rules called human society. It is inexhaustibly interesting because human society has multiplied our opportunities and our adventures, and has developed our minds.

Society supplements memory by traditions and records. It accumulates knowledge by means of which, and by criticism, it extends and corrects our mental activities. It appraises our possessions and achievements, and disciplines behavior. It organizes relationships, activities and controls, thereby enabling men and women of strong character and good sense to improve their lot. It encourages and helps such as have little character and little sense to do the best they can. It makes as merciful as possible the inevitable extermination of those who have no character and no sense.

Dwelling in society and members of it we think of ourselves as "us" and also as "one another." We talk about what "we" think and do, and about "our" interests, "their" affairs, "his" or "her" behavior. We sort people into kinds, which we describe as good and bad neighbors, desirable and undesirable citizens, civilized and barbarous peoples, superior and inferior races, and so on. We even talk about mankind in general as becoming better or worse, improving or deteriorating.

Sometimes we ask ourselves how far these habits



and ideas are effective. Do they influence behavior as well as grow out of and reflect it? How do we conduct ourselves with good neighbors and desirable citizens? What do we do, or try to do, to bad neighbors and undesirable citizens? Do we emulate civilized peoples and try to be civilized? What do we do, or try to do, to barbarians? Assuming that we are a superior race, what do we do, or try to do, to inferior races? Are we trying to make mankind in general better, or at least to keep it from going altogether to the bad?

Exposed to so many stimulating situations and prodded by so many provocative questions we should think about life in a large way, and react to it with interest, instead of with the weariness of an indolent or an undernourished mind. Unless, however, the youth of this generation can be brought under influences that have not reached their elders they are likely to think narrowly, as the present fashion is, and to content themselves with meagre values.

Most of the human beings now living in the so-called civilized parts of the world care more for money than for the things of the mind. Commercial values alone absorb them. The material things that we desire to possess make a livelier and more insistent appeal to most of us than our ideals and standards of human excellence do. Our need of food, clothing and shelter is imperative, while comforts, luxury and "money" spell ease, pleasure and power. We can enjoy and contemplate them without much mental weariness. Even to think about them, as we habitually do, in terms of commercial values, is not laborious. Indeed, for many of us, it has an almost fatal fascination, because these values are subject to uncertainties of change, which awaken and hold an emotional interest, inseparable from chance.

The things that we possess, however, and our commercial values, are not ends in themselves. Strictly speaking, they are only means (as all right-thinking men and women admit) to such ends as the conservation, improvement and desirableness of human life. These objects, also, like our material possessions, we "set store by." We esteem and appraise, we value them, and the values so arising we call intellectual, personal, human or spiritual values.

Human values are not so easy to apprehend, and to understand, when we first make the attempt, as commercial values are, and they do not at once so keenly interest us. But if we form the habit of thinking about them we discover that the difficulties which they present are not really formidable, that the attempt to master them is exhilarating, and that the interest which they presently awaken turns out to be inexhaustible. Sociology calls our attention to these values, shows us their true relation to commercial values, asks our serious consideration of them, and incalculably multiplies our intellectual reactions to the ages-long struggle for a worth-while human existence. It reminds us that "a good name is rather to be chosen than great riches," and tells us why. It demonstrates concretely that any land fares ill, how-

ever rapidly its wealth accumulates, if men decay.

Not less simple than our ideas of what is worth while in life are the notions that most of us hold about ways and means to obtain what we want, and, in general, to get things done. Corporations look to governments for subsidies and "protection," and individuals to governments and corporations for jobs. The discontented resort to strikes, sabotage and violence as the only self-help they understand. Rich and poor alike are indifferent to knowledge and thinking makes them tired. They are impatient of the slow evolution of moral controls.

There is more than one way, and more than one class of ways, by which we try to get the material things that we desire to possess, try to become the kind of human beings that we wish to be, and try to make life increasingly desirable. There are ways privately initiated and carried out (the so-called voluntaristic ways) and there are governmental ways; there are ways of "direct action" so-called, culminating in revolution, and there are developmental or evolutionary ways.

The study of civics, or of government, directs attention to the necessity and the advantages of political organization, to the nature, authority and activities of the state, and to the functions of central and local governing agencies. Knowledge of these matters is indispensable. If, however, this knowledge is permitted to stand too much by itself, and no acquaintance with the countless forms of voluntary coöperation that have grown up and been practiced throughout generations is required, the pupil will go into life with an ill-balanced view of ways and means to get things done. He will too often turn to government for action that he should help to initiate and for which he should share responsibility. The tendency to look to governments, and through them to taxpayers, for appropriations and subsidies, and to substitute legislative or administrative commands for religious and educational controls, is always strong, and of late disquieting. It not only curtails individual liberty, a serious matter, and most serious when peoples that have begun to lose their liberties become indifferent to them or even disapprove of them as inconsistent with the common good, but also, and this is a more serious matter, it presently brings law into contempt and incapacitates government itself by putting upon it a load that it is unfit and unable to carry. Sociology shows us, as no other study does, the true relation of the individual to the public, of folk ways to state ways, of liberty to command, of education to coercion; and their normal limitations by one another.

Impatience with biological and historical processes and impetuous resort to direct action are characteristic not only of low intelligences and unstable characters, and, (on the whole more mischievously) of fiery temperaments righteously intolerant of injustice and misery, but also of youth; of perfectly healthy, sane, and capable youth.

Young humans are as intolerant of restraint as young animals are, and with more reason, because

they have enough mental power to be aware that the adventure of life lies before them. Conscious energy and daring cry out for freedom to think and to act. For the same reason youngsters of both sexes are fiercely individualistic in feeling, whatever creed of fraternity they may profess. They demand liberty for self-expression, and they identify self-realization with the chief end of man.

Youth may voice its demand intellectually, as Byron and Shelley, and Rousseau before them, did; or it may break out in practical revolt. Youth takes ardently to "movements" from strikes to revolutions. They look like lines of minimum effort, and their appeal is dramatic, while self-expression through creation, artistic, or inventive, looks hard.

Youthful rebellion is directed in the main and usually against the "man-made" laws and institutions of organized society. This again is a dramatic and seemingly a relatively easy drive, while rebellion against conditions imposed by nature, through heredity or otherwise, if more than a mere petulance is a serious undertaking, involving scientific research, discovery and adaptation. In this matter, however, the older generation should not too severely condemn the younger, for the older has taught the younger much that is not true about the causes of success and failure in life. In particular, it has attributed to opportunity or the lack of it, or to education or the lack of it, achievements and disasters which, in truth, should sometimes have been attributed to inborn character, strong or weak, or to inborn ability, great or negligible. Therefore, it is not to be wondered at if youth, more resentful against restraint endured than appreciative of liberty enjoyed, indicts society.

The counts are many. "The existing social order," as radicalism loves to call it, is declared to be imperialistic, imposing a resented rule upon subjugated peoples. To this end, we are told, the social order is also militaristic, devoting millions of human lives, generation by generation, to slaughter. The cause of such wickedness, the arraignment continues, is capitalism, which consists in the monopolization of the means and opportunities of wealth-production by a class, which, for profit, exploits a much larger and very miserable class, the proletarians or wage-earners. And finally, it is charged, capitalism, to keep the wage-earners quiet and manageable, controls the schools and the churches, seeing to it that they teach nothing in the name of either science or religion which might make the poor discontented in that station to which it has pleased God to call them.

The phrase "the existing social order," it is understood, is an indictment in itself. It could and should connote a priceless heritage of human attainment; but, as commonly used, it does not; and as employed in the jargon of revolution it gives no hint that organized society, through ages of incredible toil and tribulation, has created every possibility of individuation, and of self-realization, that the human race now enjoys.

As we gain experience, however, and get knowledge (including some acquaintance with history) we begin to question whether it really would help matters to

destroy institutions or to abrogate laws. What if back of organized society and working through it are forces that have created it, and that regenerate it whenever it suffers violence? We may put the sheriff in jail and overthrow the government that appointed him, but how about our neighbors? Their heads are full of notions (commendable, no doubt) about behavior, which they seem disposed to apply to us; for our good, if we take their word for it. But if our self-determination doesn't go on all fours with theirs, things happen to us. We then make the discovery that their disinterestedness is not inconsistent with severity. The number of things that they learn how to do to us (without due process of law) is appreciable, and the variety exhausts ingenuity. They can shun us and ridicule us; they can refuse to employ us, or to buy our wares. In the end, if they find our ways of enjoying liberty too obnoxious they can deport us, quite informally, and with or without embellishments.

And this is not the only one or the worst of our discoveries. Besides all the obviously good creatures who (with kind intention as we know) firmly do things to us for our improvement, there are characters who do things equally unpleasant, for other reasons. They pick pockets and steal automobiles; they hold up travellers on highways and break into houses at night; they kill any who oppose them, or they murder for vengeance, or for a paltry price. If capitalism were done away with might not such unkind beings still find ways to make life hard for their fellow men? Has it not been suggested that they worried Russia more or less after revolution had proclaimed communism, and promised to make everybody happy?

The rejoinder may be made, and it is made, that evil men and women are not wicked by nature, but have been made wicked by injustice or misfortune. They are brutalized products, it is said, of the social order. "If they only had a chance," the refrain runs, "they would be kind and good."

As a working hypothesis this contention has been provocative not only of revolutionary disorder, but also of no little humane effort. Nevertheless, as we begin to examine it, our skepticism returns. It occurs to us that in various parts of the world there are tribes of barbarians, and little hordes of dirty savages, whose social order is different from ours. They have never been debauched by capitalism, but they are not unacquainted with wickedness. They have been known to scalp and to steal. Some of them are cannibals. They have even made war now and then, in their poor way. Their laws are not like ours, but their usages are stern; and their taboos are merciless. They have amiable traits, to be sure, to offset their evil ways. In particular, they are loyal to one another. They redress one another's injuries, and defend one another against a common foe. But, on the whole, we gather that we might as well endure the ills we have as fly to theirs. Clearly, there must be causes of evil and annoyance in human life besides profits and the wages system. What are they?

Perhaps we shall never be able to find a completely satisfying answer to this question; but one thing we

know now. Impulses to evil and to good are biological inheritances, and they have a history that runs cons back of human life. There are gregarious animals: packs, herds, bands, swarms of them. They, too, like human beings, are good and bad. They care for their young; they work together in making nests or other habitations, and now and then they share food with one another. But also they steal and kill. Above all, they are herdminded. They have neither laws nor conventions, but neither have they any "individuation." Whatever the pack or the swarm does, every creature in it does.

Denial of biological facts and wrath at folkways has never yet annihilated them. Kicking against the pricks doesn't alter heredity or appreciably mollify custom. It is only a childish or a tragic expression of them. Cruelties and kindnesses, aggressions and loyalties, meddlings and tolerations, exploitations and coöperations; taboos, conventions, laws, institutions; restraints, disciplines, the social order, these survive all revolutions, eternally insistent, always and everywhere forcing themselves upon attention. We have to live with them and shape our lives by them. We may as well try to understand them.

Sociology is our systematic attempt to understand. It factorizes the ways and products of pluralistic human behavior. It seeks their origin, and follows their evolution through milleniums of trial and error, elimination and substitution, correction and adaptation, integration and differentiation. It exhibits the relation of revolution to evolution, and shows us why direct action, always rude and wasteful, is also, so often, futile.

These, then, are some of the outstanding and significant reasons why we should study Sociology. It directs attention to the whole scheme and range of values, and convincingly exhibits the subservient relation of commercial values to human or spiritual values. It brings to our notice the variety and the vitality of spontaneous and customary ways of collective action, and shows us the relation of these folkways to state-ways, of voluntaristic to authoritative methods of trying to achieve desired ends. It exhibits the relation of direct action to an evolution which proceeds through an investigative and constructive trial and error. By concrete evidence it corrects an untutored view of ways and means.

Sociology, then, is not a "vocational" subject, although it is by no means without value in vocational study. Sociology is frankly a "liberal" study, an indispensable part of the so-called "liberal education." The distinction is simple and clear. In getting our vocational training we are learning how to *do* specific tasks, and to do them well. In getting a liberal education we are learning how to *think*, and discovering what matters are best worth thinking about. In studying Sociology we are learning how to think in a scientific spirit, soberly and dispassionately—about great human interests, and preparing ourselves to take part intelligently and responsibly in community life and in large public affairs.

## GEOGRAPHY

BY PROFESSOR J. RUSSELL SMITH

So far as secondary education is concerned, Geography is the study of the earth as the home of man. It is an important part of a high school curriculum because geographic knowledge is (A) fundamental to the proper education of the citizen, (B) fundamental to the education of the business man, (C) fundamental as preparation for other studies, (D) fundamental as a part of the equipment of the cultivated mind.

*As the Center of the Curriculum*—If the curriculum is to be something better than a collection of disconnected scraps it must have some central core to which the other subjects are related. No other subject can rival geography in rendering this service in the lower grades. Accordingly, Geography should begin immediately upon the acquisition of the great tools—the three Rs.

Geography should be taught through most of the pre-high school years, when the child is especially strong in memorizing ability. He then acquires much geographic fact—place geography. This is material for future interpretation and is a framework for the addition of future knowledge.

The central relationship of Geography in the curriculum still appears in the high school, when we observe that it furnishes an indispensable base or foundation for much of the work in History and Economics, and to a slightly lesser extent, for Civics.

### *A. Geography as an Aid to Citizenship.*

Fairyland is surpassed by the new powers that science has placed in the hand of man for the control of material things. We are face to face with the golden age—with an almost undreamed Utopia, if only we can but muster the constructive imagination to use the knowledge and apply the powers we now have. The trouble is that our imagination has not yet caught up with our powers for good and evil. On its material side, the makers of the new Utopia must deal with the things taught in Geography courses, much as the engineer uses building materials. Not only does geography furnish the materials but it cultivates the imagination. In this respect, Geography, if well taught, is the peer of solid geometry and has a much richer residuum of utility.

It is easy to see that we have achieved world powers. We buy and sell by continents, we invest money, eat and clothe ourselves by continents, we talk and listen by continents, but we have not yet learned to think or feel by continents or to govern ourselves by continents. Hence came the World War, ripping civilization asunder and wrecking human beings in numbers that are beyond the abilities of our minds to comprehend. Other wars, quite needless, hover over us. Intellect and good will should prevent them. One basis for international understanding is geographic knowledge. The most important task facing the human race today is that men should realize and act upon world concepts—realize and act upon the fact that the world is one. How shall we bury intellectual provincialism and set the concept of world

unity in place of it? This is a task at which teachers of Geography must work. Geography, telling of the earth, is the basis, the background, the stage, and it is also the intellectual broadener.

*Political Geography*—High school training for citizenship needs an understanding of the geographic environment, a world viewpoint, and some knowledge of world problems along lines similar to that presented in Isaiah Bowman's "The New World," which may perhaps be called the first political geography written in America. There is a great difference between political geography and some kind of geography on political divisions.

*The Scientific Method in Citizenship*—Despite their great usefulness, History, Civics, and Economics are fields in which it is often difficult to use the scientific method of cause and effect, because much of the data and their relationships are indefinite. This is a great misfortune to society, because one of our greatest needs is the introduction of the scientific method and the scientific point of view into the field of social decision. Geography can show much more definite relationships of cause and effect than can Economics, Civics, or History. In the realm of Civics and Economics a political factor or an economic principle is often modified by the whims of human nature, and so enmeshed by other circumstances that the effect of the factor or principle may be only discerned and by no means measured. The same is true of History. In Geography it is much easier to see result stand out, as when drought and flood and frost make crop failure, aridity makes nomadism or causes men to introduce irrigation. Because of this greater definiteness of cause and effect, Geography is an important aid in getting a new and much needed viewpoint and mental habit with regard to social phenomena.

#### B. *Geography for the Business Man.*

*Commercial Geography*—If a person is to make business decisions, Geography is an integral part of his training. Already the leading foreign traders, investors, financiers, manufacturers, sales managers, and other business leaders, are demanding Commercial or Economic Geography. It is also true that this study is now a part of the course in most commercial high schools and collegiate schools of commerce, business administration or applied economics. Commercial or Economic Geography needs to be continued and taught more thoroughly because no other subject gives this useful information or this important mental background.

*Regional Geography*—Regional geography divides the area under consideration into units having similar natural conditions and therefore producing similar activities. It is difficult to conceive of a business man who would not be better off as the result of a good course in the Regional Geography of the United States or North America, if the course were presented with a degree of thoroughness and philosophic elaboration commensurate with the mental age of the students. If the school aims to train students especially for foreign trade there should be courses covering some of the other continents as well as

North America.

#### C. *Geography as a Foundation for Other Subjects.*

Economics, the science of wealth, is a joint product of the physical environment and human nature. Geography is the course dealing with the physical environment, and thereby furnishes a fundamental basis for Economics.

Civics, the study of government, deals with people attempting to solve certain kinds of problems in their home place. What is the influence of the home place in making the problem, and in helping or hindering its solution? Geography gives this answer.

History, the record of man's activities, may be but dramatic episode unless the stage upon which it was played is clearly understood. Every play begins by telling the scene, and so History must be incomplete until the scene of what occurs is understood. When the influence of the environmental factor is shown, History may be largely explained. Thus, it is plain that Geography is fundamental to the understanding of History.

One of the greatest contributions that the social sciences can make to the student mind is the idea of development, change, progress toward better things. This is one of the strong points of Geography. I am not urging any less attention to History, but I wish to state that Geography even exceeds History as a means for conveying the impression of development. To appreciate this, show the students a clear cut environment such as the equatorial forest, the desert's edge, a marshy flat land, a semi-arid grassy plain, a rich but isolated mountain district, an estuary whose navigable river reaches a rich hinterland. Then note how man, meeting the needs of life in these different environments, develops so differently his industry, his ideas, his institutions, his government, his society, his history.

We need to have a rich understanding of this environment if we are to understand "whence we came, whither we are going, and what we ought to be and to do while we are going." Geography is the older sister of History, Economics and Civics; perhaps one might almost say the parent.

#### D. *Adds to the Pleasures of the Intellect.*

*World Affairs*—World politics, the development of countries, peoples, nations and movements, is a drama of absorbing interest. The more we understand them the more interesting they are. The more Geography we know the more we understand them. Geography, then, helps to decide whether or no we are real spectators of the world play.

*Physical Geography*—Shall the earth be to man merely a foot rest or something for his mind to understand? The winds forever blowing where they list and the waters forever flowing to the all-receiving sea are the chisels of God that have shaped and are continuing to shape this, his footstool, on which we live. I have often been told by students of Geography that the understanding of these things had greatly increased the pleasure of travel. This knowledge had made the common hills and roadsides speak to them as beauty of color and form speak to an artist.

I should not recommend that a course in Physical Geography, with interesting field trips and observations, be required in any high school. It should be an elective for those who have intellectual appreciations.

#### CONCLUSION

An examination of these objectives or expectations will show that they are not mutually exclusive. They are supplementary, each contributing to the best development of the others.

A course, going under the name "history," and taught by one who is trained in geography, sociology, economics, and government, and carrying in mind the objectives of all of these subjects, could attain to some realization of all of them by his pupils. A course in "government" in similar circumstances, or a course in "economics," could not avoid accomplishing most of the ends sought. The sense of progressive development could be seen in the origin and growth of political institutions over a longer or shorter period, depending on the length of time given to the work by the pupils; the influence of geographical conditions on the growth of institutions would not be omitted; the wise teacher would bring out the fact that society is busy in other ways than through political organization in attaining to those projected ideals toward which we are striving; and the economic welfare, which after all must go ahead of preparations for a full life, would be constantly in the foreground.

This is no argument for a short course or a make-shift compromise, but for a realization of the fact that we are not engaged in an enterprise in which we must cut each other out in order to attain to our

proper hopes. It is also no argument that the best possible course is one in which the principle of division of labor and the distribution of emphasis in different parts of the course is neglected. These things are to be worked out. It may be wise to follow the basic idea in the report of the Committee on the Social Studies in Secondary Education and give a year or more to the "history" of the background of our civilization; and another to this civilization as it is being worked out particularly in American conditions; with a third to a more careful consideration of recent history in the light of scientific economics and political science, whether divided into a half year of government and a half year of economics or a whole year in problems of democracy. It may be better to select periods of history and study them with due emphasis on the geographical, economic, political and sociological aspects. It is futile to dogmatize about these things except it be to state our claims as a precedent to an examination of them.

Having clearly stated what we want accomplished we have only prepared the way to find out whether it is worth accomplishing, whether it can be accomplished, and how it may be best accomplished in view of the expectation of others who have a right to demand attention. The work of the Joint Commission of scholars will be observed with the greatest interest for their task is fundamental and they are well equipped to perform it. With good fortune the next yearbook of the National Council may be able to present a statement from them which will clear the atmosphere in which we work.

## Pennsylvania Program of the Social Studies<sup>1</sup>

BY J. LYNN BARNARD, PH. D.

### I. *Some Fundamental Principles.*

This twelve-year program has as its aim the training of the pupils in practical good citizenship, rather than the mere accumulation of facts for possible future use. It would define citizenship as participation in community life; and by community is meant any group, be it large or small, be it social, industrial, religious, fraternal, educational, or political.

It recognizes the fact that citizenship is a life process, a life experience, and that all are citizens. It believes that training in citizenship, in coöperative group life, must be like the training in English, continuous and cumulative throughout the twelve years of school life. From this standpoint the history and social science of the high school are not simply specialized studies, to be taken only as electives; they are a vital part of the making of intelligent, qualified citizens—the only justification of the tax-supported public school system.

This program insists that history and social science are of coördinate rank and importance; the one giving

us a perspective as to how mankind has slowly and painfully learned to lead the group life; the other giving us a sort of cross-section view of how man is now leading the group life, through the various organizations and activities that together constitute present-day civilization.

Further, there is distinct recognition of the various psychologic stages through which our young citizens are passing, with corresponding adaptation of both content and method.

And, finally, the impossibility of securing satisfactory results through the usual reciting-to-the-teacher method is accepted as beyond question. While the teaching process must be varied, the main dependence for success must be placed on the problem-project method, and on the constant breaking up of the class into small groups for the preparation of assigned work. The uncompromising nailed-to-the-floor desks must give way to comfortable chairs properly equipped for student use, supplemented in junior and senior high school by small tables around which the small groups can gather. In short, the classroom for social studies must become a laboratory, with book-laboratory equipment and resources. This change is

<sup>1</sup> This statement went to press without the possibility of submitting the proof to the writer.

fundamental and not a mere device, as some would have us believe. It is an integral part of the school's training in coöperative democracy.

## II. *A Twelve-Year Program.*

The schedule proposed for the State Course is as follows:

### A. Elementary.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grades I-III.

Part One: Anniversary Days.

Part Two: Indians, Esquimaux, Cliff Dwellers; Early Man—Tree Dwellers, Cave Dwellers, Sea People, Pastoral People.

##### b. Grades IV and V. Stories of American History.

##### c. Grade VI. European Background.

#### 2. Civics.

##### a. Grades I-VI. Civic Virtues (Morals and Manners).

##### b. Grades III-VI. Community Coöperation.

##### c. Grade VI. Vocational Coöperation.

### B. Junior High.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grade VII. United States History.

#### 2. Social Science.

##### a. Grade VIII. Community Civics.

##### b. Grade IX. Vocational-Economic Civics.

### C. Senior High.

#### 1. History.

##### a. Grade X. European History.

##### b. Grade XI. American History.

#### 2. Social Science.

##### a. Grade XII. Problems of Democracy.

### HISTORY

In the History of the first two grades the emphasis is placed on the Indian, both because he lends himself so easily to expression work and because he forms a sort of half-way approach to Early Man, taken up in the third grade.

The third and fourth grades are planned to contrast primitive man under primitive conditions with civilized man under primitive conditions. In the one the progress is slow and painful, as man learns to lead the group life. In the other the progress is rapid and comparatively pleasurable. The difference spells civilization—community coöperation—the group life.

Grade six has three purposes: to fill in the break between grades three and four; to orient the young citizen; to form a background for the work of grade seven.

American history is covered three times, but in different fashion each time: grades four and five, in story form; grade seven, consecutive, but dealing only with the simpler aspects of our country's history; grade eleven, topical-chronological, dealing with the maturer phases and problems of American history.

Throughout all the history study of the junior and senior high school constant use is made: first,

of the "approach" to each topic, which ties the topic to the live interest of the pupil; second, of comparisons and interrelationships; third, of committee work in the solving of the various problems presented, care being taken to touch only the high spots.

The European history of the tenth year (possibly including the last half of the ninth) is intended to be a world survey, with steadily increasing emphasis as recent times are approached.

Truncated history—whether the part reserved for study is the so-called "ancient" or the so-called "modern" history—is not a part of the Pennsylvania program of citizenship training. To be effective, the story of human progress—of how man has learned to coöperate with his fellow man—must begin where the story itself begins, and end where it ends. With the problem method and committee reports this becomes feasible; with the formal recitation and the inclusion of petty detail it is next to impossible.

### SOCIAL SCIENCE

The "Civic Virtues" of the elementary civics are so planned as to aid in the formation of right social habits during the impressionable early years. The value of habit as a constraining influence with young citizens and with older ones is carefully kept in mind.

The "Community Coöperation" of the intermediate grades is intended to show the service rendered by the people round about us; how dependent we are on that service; how interdependent we all are, due to our highly specialized vocational life; how this interdependence is made possible only through coöperation; and, finally, how coöperative good citizenship necessitates the exemplification by each citizen of the civic virtues already stressed.

"Community Civics" discloses to the young adolescent how the elements of civic welfare are secured through community organization, that is, through organized community coöperation. Having reached the organization (the "gang spirit") stage the pupils are ready to become interested not only in activity, but in the organization back of the activity. However, care is taken to follow the order of interest of the pupil; namely, from activity to organization and then to legal powers. The end of civic instruction being civic activity, the young citizens of the class are helped to discover how they themselves may coöperate in some organized fashion.

The Vocational-Economic Civics of the ninth year has a twofold aim. The Vocational Civics discusses the nature of occupations, the qualities and training necessary for advancement, the social service to be rendered, and the business ethics involved.

The Economic Civics is a sort of elementary economics, or business civics, with a more general discussion of how wealth is produced, consumed, and exchanged.

Either of these semester courses may be taken without the other, where time is to be found for European history in the second half of the ninth year.

The course in Problems of Democracy is based on the proposition that young people face problems, not

sciences; but that they must go to the social sciences for explanations and possible solutions of these problems. It is also based on the notion that there are certain fundamental concepts (described in the syllabus) with which every intelligent adult citizen must be acquainted; and that these concepts should be taught, not directly as topics in themselves, but indirectly along with the problems under discussion.

This culminating study in the social studies program is primarily intended to train our upper high school students in how to investigate, to reason, to compare, to judge. It is expected to train in power and

initiative. As a by-product, it lays a foundation in the social sciences both for those who go to college and for those whose academic education ends with the high school. The stand is taken that the public secondary school—the “people’s college”—has no right, from a social standpoint, to send young men and women out into the world lacking specific training in the problems of American Democracy—the problems whose solution will soon be in their hands. Longer to side-step this all-important function of the high school is to “reap the whirlwind.”

## The Place of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Missouri

BY CAROLINE E. HARTWIG OF SAINT JOSEPH.

The social studies are passing through a period of transition. Thought is being crystallized as to the objectives at which the social studies must aim. It is now generally conceded that citizenship must be the general aim of the social studies and plans to reorganize the social studies on this basis have been worked out by various national committees. Other committees are still working on this problem. It takes a while for schools to accept the well-worked-out suggestions of these various committees and Missouri schools are no exception to this rule.

Endeavoring to find out just what the first-class high schools of the state were doing with the social studies, the Committee on the Course of Study in Practical Citizenship of the Missouri State Teachers' Association had questionnaires sent out to all the high schools of this rank in the state during the 1921-22 school year. Of the 396 questionnaires sent out, 128 were returned. Questionnaires were not always filled out properly and consequently some of them had to be cast aside in tabulating the data they contained. However, the results were fairly interesting.

Below is listed the number of schools offering each social study out of a possible 115:

### NUMBER OF FIRST-CLASS HIGH SCHOOLS OUT OF 115 OFFERING SOCIAL STUDY SUBJECTS

<i>Social Study Subjects Offered</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>
Ancient History . . . . .	68
Medieval and Modern History . . . . .	60
Early European History . . . . .	42
Later European History . . . . .	42
American History . . . . .	110
English History . . . . .	55
Civics . . . . .	67
Economics . . . . .	58
Sociology . . . . .	86
Community Civics . . . . .	41
Missouri History . . . . .	18
Vocations . . . . .	5

A study of this table shows that practically all of the schools that answered the questionnaires offer

either ancient or early European History. The number offering medieval and modern or later European history is only a little smaller. One is not surprised that 110 schools teach American history but that five do not. In all five schools where this is so, English history is offered. Out of the 115 questionnaires used, only one reported less than four units of social studies.

Of these schools 64 have only one course of study leading to graduation. In these schools the pupils take practically all the social studies offered because of their rigid curriculum, and consequently get a fairly large amount of the social studies. The other 51 schools offer various courses leading to graduation. It was found that the classical courses usually require ancient or early European history and a little over half of them require American history. The Teacher Training Courses all require American history, nearly all require sociology and half insist upon community civics. Ancient history and early European history make a good showing in the commercial course, but American history is sadly neglected. Not enough schools offered home economics, general, vocational, agriculture, or science courses to make any generalization possible.

Before leaving this subject, the place which the social studies occupy in the high schools of the largest cities of the state must be mentioned. The St. Louis schools require community civics and vocations of all freshmen, and one-half year each of modern and American history of all seniors. Sophomores and juniors may elect history of various types.

The system used in the Kansas City High Schools is entirely different. One year only of social studies is required and the pupil is free to choose any social study subject he desires. Ancient, modern, and American history are all offered for one year; civics is offered for one-half or one year; and sociology and industrial history each for one-half year. In order to graduate, however, a pupil must have three years of one subject group and two of two others. The social studies constitute one of the possible seven groups.



Sociology was first introduced in 1918 in Manual Training High School in spite of opposition from members of the school board, who thought that it would be merely a rehashing of a college subject. It proved so popular that it is now offered in all the high schools. Manual training also offers a course in economics, and a course in community civics is being organized.

The St. Joseph High Schools require American history and civics in the senior year of all courses. Community civics is required of freshmen taking the commercial course. Ancient history is a requirement for freshmen taking the classical course. All sophomores may elect medieval and modern history and juniors may choose sociology and economics.

The amount of social studies in the first-class High Schools of Missouri seems adequate. Whether the courses are effective in making for citizenship is an entirely different question. While too much emphasis must not be laid on textbooks, still they are an indication of the type of work that is being done.

A list of the texts mentioned more than twice in the questionnaires from the 115 schools and the number of times they are mentioned follow:

<b>Ancient History Texts</b>	
Ashley, <i>Early European Civilization</i> . . . . .	4
Breasted, <i>Ancient Times</i> . . . . .	4
Myers, <i>Ancient History</i> . . . . .	15
Robinson and Breasted, <i>Outlines of European History, Vol. 1.</i> . . . .	28
West, <i>Ancient World</i> . . . . .	5
Westermann, <i>Story of the Ancient Nations</i> . . . . .	3
Webster, <i>Early European History</i> . . . . .	5
<b>Medieval and Modern History Texts</b>	
Harding, <i>New Medieval and Modern History</i> . . . . .	9
Myers, <i>Medieval and Modern History</i> . . . . .	7
Robinson and Beard, <i>Outlines of European History, Vol. 2</i> . . . . .	19
Robinson, <i>Medieval and Modern Times</i> . . . . .	3
West, <i>Modern World</i> . . . . .	6
West, <i>Story of Modern Progress</i> . . . . .	4
<b>Early European History Texts</b>	
Robinson and Breasted, <i>Outlines of European History, Vol. 1</i> . . . . .	25
Ashley, <i>Early European Civilization</i> . . . . .	12
Webster, <i>Early European History</i> . . . . .	4
<b>Later European History Texts</b>	
Robinson and Beard, <i>Outlines of European History, Vol. 2</i> . . . . .	29
Ashley, <i>Modern European Civilization</i> . . . . .	7
Webster, <i>Modern European History</i> . . . . .	3
<b>English History Text</b>	
Cheyney, <i>Short History of England</i> . . . . .	50
<b>American History Texts</b>	
Ashley, <i>American History</i> . . . . .	3
Beard, <i>History of the United States</i> . . . . .	3
Forman, <i>Advanced American History</i> . . . . .	3
Hart, <i>New American History</i> . . . . .	5
Muzzey, <i>American History</i> . . . . .	70
West, <i>History of the American People</i> . . . . .	5

#### Civics Texts

Ashley, <i>New Civics</i> . . . . .	4
Guittau, <i>Government and Politics in the United States</i> . . . . .	4
Magruder, <i>American Government in 1921</i> . . . . .	15
Woodburn and Moran, <i>Citizen and the Republic</i> . . . . .	25

#### Economics Texts

Bullock, <i>Elements of Economics</i> . . . . .	7
Burch, <i>American Economic Life</i> . . . . .	3
Carver, <i>Elementary Economics</i> . . . . .	7
Ely and Wicker, <i>Elementary Principles of Economics</i> . . . . .	15
Thompson, <i>Elementary Economics</i> . . . . .	10

#### Sociology Texts

Burch and Patterson, <i>American Social Problems</i> . . . . .	10
Ellwood, <i>Sociology and Modern Social Problems</i> . . . . .	37
Gillette, <i>Constructive Rural Sociology</i> . . . . .	3
Towne, <i>Social Problems</i> . . . . .	19

#### Community Civics Texts

Ames and Eldred, <i>Community Civics</i> . . . . .	3
Dunn, <i>Community Civics and Rural Life</i> . . . . .	7
Hughes, <i>Community Civics</i> . . . . .	20

#### Missouri History Texts

McClure, <i>Boys' and Girls' History of Missouri</i> . . . . .	9
Violette, <i>History of Missouri</i> . . . . .	6

#### Vocations and Occupations Text

Gowin and Wheatley, <i>Occupations</i> . . . . .	5
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Social study programs are constantly being changed from year to year. In order to find out the trend which the social study teachers would prefer the social studies to take, were they allowed free reign in the matter, seven social study programs based largely on the recommendations of various committees were outlined and the teachers were asked to check their first, second and third choice.

The programs are given below and numbered for convenience in making the table which will follow. Ninety-three teachers responded.

I. Ancient history; medieval and modern history; English history; American history, and civics.

II. Ancient history; medieval and modern history; English and American history; sociology and economics.

III. Early European history; later European history; American history; sociology, economics and civics.

IV. Community civics and occupations; European history; American history; problems of democracy.

V. General social science; survey of social evolution (historical); American history; social, economic and political problems.

VI. Civics, early European history, later European history; American history.

VII. Community Civics and Missouri History; general history; American history; economics and sociology.

## No. TEACHERS CHECKING COURSES

Courses	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice	Total
I	18	6	4	28
II	9	8	10	27
III	80	16	18	64
IV	12	29	15	56
V	4	8	12	24
VI	8	11	11	25
VII	22	15	22	59

The large numbers listing III, IV and VII show that American history is preferred for the third year. Sentiment as to whether history or elementary social problems should comprise the first year's work is divided.

That more sociology, economics and civics have not been offered in the high schools does not necessarily mean that teachers are unwilling to give them. Teachers who have introduced or tried to introduce these subjects were asked to check the problems they have encountered. From the answers to this question the following information was obtained:

Difficulties encountered	Times encountered
Lack of library equipment	66
Inadequate teaching force	61
Too many required subjects	46
Too many formal subjects	84
Non-preparation of teaching force	28
Satisfaction with present curriculum	26
Misunderstanding of nature of social studies by patrons	25
Patrons' fear of teaching evolutionary doctrines	22
Lack of interest on part of students	20
Social studies not recognized for entrance by higher educational institutions	17
Fear of radical (political) teaching	8
Objection from superintendent or principal who holds to formal subjects	7
Objection from Board of Education	6

Replies to this question were received principally from the smaller high schools of the state. This explains the number checking the first two problems listed. The next two show the need of an entirely new reorganization of the high school. If the high school is to function properly, formal subjects will have to be discarded in favor of those of known value and the subjects which are made requirements will have to be chosen on this basis alone. The non-preparation of the teaching force will be discussed in detail later on.

That there is so much misunderstanding of the nature of the social studies and fear of teaching evolutionary doctrines is a sad commentary on the intelligence of our people. Whether students really are not interested in economics, sociology and civics is doubtful. Usually lack of interest is manifested only because people do not know what these subjects really are.

How great is the problem growing out of the refusal of higher educational institutions to recognize these subjects for entrance is not shown by the fifteen who checked this problem. The larger high schools,

particularly those who send three or four graduates a year to some eastern school, seem to think this a sufficient reason for not offering these subjects to the hundreds of students whose education is not continued in these schools.

A survey of the place of the social studies in Missouri would not be complete if the social study teacher were left out. Whether a teacher is able to make her work effective depends upon many things. One is the amount of other work she does aside from teaching social studies.

The following information was procured from a perusal of the *List of High School Teachers, City and County Superintendents of Missouri, 1921-22*.

Number of Duties of Social Study Teachers	Number Teachers
Teacher of social studies only	198
Teacher of social studies and holder of executive position (principal or superintendent)	32
Teacher of social studies and one other subject and holder of executive position	112
Teacher of social studies and two other subjects and holder of executive position	88
Teacher of social studies and three other subjects and holder of executive position	21
Teacher of social studies and four other subjects and holder of executive position	3
Teacher of social studies and one other subject	271
Teacher of social studies and two other subjects	86
Teacher of social studies and three other subjects	10
Teacher of social studies and four other subjects	2

The number of teachers who have charge of social study work only seems large until one notices that St. Louis contributes 32 and Kansas City 25 of these teachers. This is the ideal situation. A teacher, however, can do two different types of work well. Accepting this as a criterion, we find that 44 per cent fall short of this standard.

Lack of adequate preparation is another thing that hinders the high school social study teacher. Various reasons have been mentioned as causes for this lack of preparation. In order to determine what the social study teachers, themselves, think are the causes, seven reasons were listed and the social study teachers were asked to rank them in the order of their importance in their estimation. Sixty-five teachers complied with this request. In compiling these data each cause was given as many points as the rank assigned it. Consequently the cause with the smallest number of points ranked first.

Causes of Inadequate Preparation of Social Study Teachers	No. of Points
1. Requirements for a B. S. in Education degree are too high in education subjects and not high enough in the subject of specialization	225
2. The prospective social study teacher goes straight from college, university or normal school into the teaching profession and so has not had enough contact with life	262
3. The teacher who has specialized in something else is transferred to the social study department	252

4. While in college the social study teacher did not decide upon subject of specialization until it was too late to prepare adequately 801
5. The requirements for teaching social studies are too low . . . . . 821
6. Advisors in colleges, normal schools and universities do not function adequately as aids in the selection of subjects to be taken by prospective social study teachers . . . 840
7. University courses are so theoretical they do not put any emphasis on concrete problems 867

No matter how much preparation a teacher may have, success in teaching the social studies is dependent upon the objectives which the teacher has in mind. In order to determine what Missouri social study teachers deem important eight social study objectives were listed and the teachers were asked to rank them in the order of their importance in their estimation. One hundred teachers complied with this request. In compiling this material the same plan was used as in compiling that on the reasons for the poor preparation of social study teachers. Consequently the objective with the smallest number of points was first choice.

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Objective of Social Study Teachers</i>	<i>No. of Points</i>
1.	Citizenship when through school . . . . .	195
2.	Better school citizenship . . . . .	368
3.	Stimulus to participate in social relationships	369
4.	General culture . . . . .	390
5.	Appreciation of newspapers and magazines .	419
6.	Reading regarding social relationships during leisure . . . . .	615
7.	Knowledge of sources of material . . . . .	618
8.	Preparation for advanced work—college preparatory . . . . .	626

The ranking given these objectives is what one would expect. The objectives ranking first, second and third are obviously on much the same order. General culture probably holds the place it does because the function of the high school was once thought to be to promote this rather vague ideal. That preparation for advanced work occupies the last place shows that Missouri teachers realize that the high school must take into consideration first of all the student who will receive further formal training.

This concludes the information gained from the questionnaires. Whether conditions are better or worse in Missouri than in other states can only be determined by similar surveys carried on in other places.

## Progressive Tendencies of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades

BY HARRY L. HAUN

Recent progressive tendencies in state history that might lead one to think this subject deserves an important place in the public schools are as follows: first, North Carolina's state-wide motion picture plan of teaching state history; second, the socialized recitation plan of having the pupils work out their own text material in state history; third, the actual production of concrete, interesting and well-rounded reading material adapted to the pupils; and fourth, the attempt to lift state history out of the class of local chronicles, and thus portray the history of each state from the earliest times to the present day, not in isolation, but in relation to the history of the nation. Each of these special aspects of the subject will be considered more in detail in the pages that follow.

### NORTH CAROLINA'S STATE-WIDE MOTION PICTURE PLAN OF TEACHING HISTORY

North Carolina has recently planned and now has in operation a series of films that will make the history of that state more real to the people.<sup>1</sup> The first picture of this series depicting the Roanoke Island colony has been completed and there are now three prints of this film circulating in the state. It is enthusiastically received everywhere it has been shown and is booked for six months ahead. Preparations are going forward now for the making of the second picture of this series. The material is being gathered for the outline and those in charge confidently expect

to have the picture made within the next twelve months.

The General Assembly of 1917 passed a law, the purpose of which was to improve the social and educational conditions of rural communities through a series of entertainments varying in number and cost, and consisting in part of moving pictures selected for their entertaining and educational value.<sup>2</sup> To put this law in operation, \$25,000 was appropriated by the General Assembly. Although the law provided that only one third of the expense of the entertainments was to be paid by the State Board of Education under the direction and supervision of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, this type of extension work was so successful and met with such general approval that recently a state appropriation of \$50,000 was made for the Division of School Extension of the Department of Education, for rural recreation, education and entertainment. Out of this \$50,000 appropriation, \$8,000 was set aside for making the first series of history pictures.

The pictures were made on Roanoke Island, and the characters were principally selected from the people living on the island. The films were inexpensive, as the cost for the first five reels was something less than \$8,000. The work was under the direction of the State Department of Education.

Pictures are being shown in a considerable number of counties where circuits have been organized. As the law provides that the county board of education

be made custodian of the community funds raised for this purpose, and requires this board to apply in its own name to the State Board of Education for one-third of the cost of each local entertainment, it seemed best to limit each circuit to a group of communities within a single county.<sup>3</sup>

It has been found, after careful and extensive investigation, that the only effective and economic way of operation in the rural communities is to make up complete portable operating units. These can be put upon definite circuits in which a number of communities are conveniently grouped.<sup>4</sup> A director of the division is employed in the Department of Education. Films have been purchased. In each county trucks and motion picture machines are provided with a mechanic. Provision is made for a director of mechanics to oversee the mechanical end of the work for all counties. A lady extension worker is employed to look after the details of the showing of the pictures, the advertising, and the social, literary and musical features of the programs that are given in the several communities.

The first picture of the series consists of five reels covering the early English expeditions and attempted settlements that were financed and encouraged by Sir Walter Raleigh.<sup>5</sup> The first two reels depict the expedition under Captains Amadas and Barlowe. The remaining reels show the adventures of the colony under Governors Ralph Lane and John White. The birth of Virginia Dare and the return of John White after an absence of three years to find the colonists gone and only the word "Croatan" carved on a tree to indicate their destination, are dramatic episodes.

#### THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION PLAN OF HAVING THE PUPILS WRITE THEIR OWN STATE HISTORY TEXT

State history has been made more real to the pupils of 8B grade at the Winona State Teachers' College, Winona, Minnesota, for they have written a fairly complete hand made booklet of their own state history.<sup>6</sup> There is a preface, a table of contents,<sup>7</sup> and a bibliography of eleven books and pamphlets which were used as source material.

One progressive feature about this booklet is certain concrete pictorial features that should be suggestive to writers of state history texts who desire to make history real to their youthful readers. In the section devoted to state institutions, which is by far the most complete, is found a detailed ground plan of the Minnesota State Prison, showing the court, laundry buildings, various cell houses, factory buildings, dining room, chapel, greenhouse, coal bunkers, administration buildings and many other features. The diagram is large enough that each of these special buildings or departments may be studied more in detail. For example, the administration building is divided into eighteen separate sections, such as barber shop, officers' dining room, warden's reception hall, rooms for the guards, and business offices. Other buildings show such interesting features as Bertillon room, printing shop, punishment cells, tailor shop, steward's room, library and foundry room. It is safe to say that the children who worked and studied out

this detailed plan of their state prison know more about the life and administration of a state prison than they would have if they had read several texts about this subject.

While colored post card pictures are used as illustrations there is sometimes a tendency to make these more concrete by additional graphic information. For example, beneath the illustration showing the "School for the Blind," at Fairbault, Minnesota, is a complete alphabet of raised letters.

As this booklet on Minnesota was the result of a half year of more or less independent work on the part of the pupils it is interesting to read it just to find out what the children think a state history should contain. While no doubt the teachers guided the pupils somewhat it is interesting to note what selections the children did best. The Indian and pioneer life is well done. The section dealing with territorial government and the transition to statehood seems to be mechanical. The division which deals with state institutions is excellent. The children are interested not so much in when these soldiers' homes or institutions for the deaf or blind were founded or how they were governed, as they are in what the people do who live there. Such sentences as the following are common:

"A half mile from the main building is a farm where the boys are taught farming . . ."

"In the school for the blind music, broom-making, hammock-weaving, beadwork and sewing are taught."

"At the school for the deaf the children are taught speech, lip-reading and drawing. . . . in the trades department the boys are taught farming, printing and shoemaking."

#### THE PRODUCTION OF CONCRETE, INTERESTING AND WELL-ROUNDED READING MATERIAL ADAPTED TO THE PUPILS

Whatever may be the advantages of motion pictures or pupil booklets for teaching state history the majority of the public elementary schools lack either the funds or time for presenting history in these ways. An abundance of concrete, interesting and well-rounded reading material must be the basis of the work for the present.

One of the most intelligible and interesting state histories for young readers is *A History of Virginia for Boys and Girls*, by John W. Wayland. The narrative has been made concrete by presenting facts in connection with persons, places and incidents, by weaving in easy phases of civics, geography and literature, and by ever keeping in mind human and social values.

Examples of the complete description of places, such as the following, are very frequent. Note this description of the Cumberland Gap:

"It is a huge notch—a deep saddle—in the towering Cumberland Mountain. In the gap, at a certain point, a man can put his feet in one state and his hands in two others; for it is there, on the northern line of Tennessee, that the western tip of Virginia ends, driven like a wedge under the broad shoulder of Kentucky."<sup>8</sup>

Note the concrete place element in this description of the first settlement at Jamestown:

"On a day in May, in the year 1607, three little ships came sailing up a broad river. On the ships were a hundred or more Englishmen. At a point about forty miles up from the mouth of the river, where a large shoulder of land extended into the water, the ships stopped and the men landed. The river at this point is three or four miles wide, and the shoulder of land extended out from the north bank a mile or more."

"The Indians called this great river Powhatan, after their mightiest chief; but the English called it the James, after their king in England. On your map you will see that this great river heads in the Alleghany Mountains. It breaks through the Blue Ridge at Balcony Falls, and on its banks are now the rich cities of Lynchburg and Richmond. Guarding its mouth are Newport News, Portsmouth and Norfolk. Through the mouth of Chesapeake Bay it pushes its way to the ocean.

"You will also observe that the capes at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay are called Charles and Henry. The hundred Englishmen of whom we speak gave the capes those names in honor of the two sons of King James; and the village that they founded up the river where they landed they called Jamestown."

One of the most effective features of this *History of Virginia for Boys and Girls* is the skillful use of repetition. You do not meet a character just once as a chance acquaintance, but you meet him so many times that you come to regard him as an old friend.

Examples of the effective use of repetition are frequent. In Chapter VII one learns that old Alexander Spotswood was a good, royal governor of early Virginia. In Chapter XI one meets him again as the Tubal Cain of Virginia and the founder of the order known as the "Knights of the Horseshoe." In Chapter XII one discovers that "William Byrd had a famous friend . . . Alexander Spotswood."<sup>10</sup> Although Thomas Jefferson and John Rolfe are mentioned numerous times in the early part of the history of Virginia it is interesting to note that a chapter on schools near the close of the text is entitled, "Jefferson's Dream," while a neighboring chapter in discussing the "Farms and Orchards," begins as follows: "From the days of John Rolfe, so long ago."<sup>11</sup>

One defect of many of the state histories, as has been shown in another chapter of this discussion, is the lack of a well-rounded proportional development of all the aspects of state life. This *History of Virginia for Boys and Girls* is fairly well rounded, for there are chapters on many of the phases of state life. The industrial history of the state is not omitted. There are chapters with headings such as the following: "In the Tobacco Fields," "Cities and Factories," "Rumsey and McCormick," and "Farms and Orchards." The social life of the people is given in such chapters as "Pocahontas and Her People," "Life on the Plantations," "Life in the Mountains," "Turnpikes and Stage Coaches," and "Ante-Bellum

Days." The educational history of the state is presented in these chapters: "The University of Virginia," "Lee at Lexington," "Maury and His Maps," and "Jefferson's Dream." Almost every chapter is "shot through and through" with the geographic element, while others, such as "The Gateways in the Mountains," are distinctly geographic.

The teacher and pupil helps given at the close of each chapter are helpful. In the place of a long summary or list of events to be remembered only four or five facts out of each chapter are listed. There are two separate lists of reference books, the one, for the pupils, of a very simple nature, and the other, more comprehensive, for the use of the teachers. The references listed are from books in print that can be obtained at a reasonable price.

As a supplementary book for use in state history to show the development of the social and economic life of the people, *Iowa Stories, Book One*, by Ray Aurner, is excellent. The book is not a number of narrative stories. It is a series of cross-sections from the pioneer life and industry of a prairie state that is typical of all the states in this region. The following suggestive titles of chapters are taken from the table of contents: "The First Roads in Iowa," "The Roads of the White Man," "Crossing the Streams," "The First Houses," "The Food in the Log Cabin," "The Simple Machines of the New Home," "The First Family Industries," "Early Flouring Mills," "Saw Mills," "Woolen Mills," "Living on Game," and "The First Schools in Iowa."

#### THE NATIONAL ELEMENT IN STATE HISTORY

Many syllabi makers, state history textbook writers, historians and teachers are attempting to lift state history out of the class of local chronicles, and thus portray the history of each state from the earliest times to the present day not in isolation, but in relation to the history of the nation.<sup>12</sup>

Representative elementary state courses of study emphasize the national elements of state history. The Kansas state course of study provides that "the history of Kansas shall be taught in its relation to the history of the United States."<sup>13</sup> Another course of study states:

"At least one-third, possibly one-half, of the year should be given to the study of Minnesota in its relation to the whole United States, to the West, and especially to the Northwest."<sup>14</sup>

The syllabus for the state of Montana enriches the United States history in the elementary grades by introducing the study of state history at definite intervals where correlations can be most advantageously made.<sup>15</sup> In New Mexico the plan is to correlate state and national history at intervals from the fourth to the eighth grade inclusive.<sup>16</sup> Such expressions as the following are common:

"Chapters I-VIII of Vaughan (the adopted state history) should be studied parallel with Beard and Bagley (the adopted U. S. History) in order that the history of the state may be seen in its proper relation to the history of the United States."<sup>17</sup>

Authors of various state histories used in the elementary grades emphasize the national phase of their local history. The following is from the adopted state history in Mississippi:

"It has been attempted to tell the progress of events as they developed, each as a part of a rounded whole; incidents are given in their connection and setting or not at all . . . the story will be found to transcend the strict limits of state history . . . in fact the life of the state has not been a separate development, and it can be understood only in its connections."<sup>18</sup>

The state history recently adopted for use in the state of New Mexico attempts to lift the "story of the state out of the class of local chronicles"<sup>19</sup> and treat it as a part of the history of America and the great Southwest. The author of a text used in a Northern state, writes:

"Since Minnesota history is, in so many places, parallel with, and dependent on, the development of the nation, it seems particularly appropriate that its study should be correlated with the general course in American history, or should immediately follow it. Young students cannot be expected to understand the history of the state unless they are informed concerning national events and policies which shaped and determined that history; they must not regard the state as an independent unit, influenced only by local conditions. An attempt has been made throughout this book wherever possible to give local events a national background or setting, and it is to be hoped that teachers will carry this phase of the work much further."<sup>20</sup>

Of the many historians<sup>21</sup> and practical school men who realize the importance of the national element in local history evidence from only two will be given; the one a principal of a large eastern school and the other a historian of national reputation. Walter Lefferts, in a brief discussion of an address on "The Teaching of Local History in the Schools," delivered by Calvin Kendall at The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, spoke in part as follows:

"What parts of local history shall we use? From the point of view of mere information it seems to me that we should use only such portions as will illuminate our national history. After all, it is our national chronicle that is most important for an intelligent citizen to know. . . . Local history should both lean upon and reinforce this knowledge of national history. On one hand we may avoid the pitfalls of triviality into which the local chronicler is apt to fall by selecting for our purposes only such events of local interest as have some national significance; on the other we may lend zest and definiteness to our teaching of national history by showing some local connections."<sup>22</sup>

One of the leading historians of Johns Hopkins University states:

" . . . local history should always be written from the point of view of universal history. The writer of local history must certainly discern the

meaning of what he is doing, or it will be of little value. The currents of local history should flow into the greater channel of national history and ultimately of world history."<sup>23</sup>

#### SUMMARY

1. North Carolina has a state-wide motion picture plan of teaching state history that has proved very effective. Out of a state appropriation of fifty thousand dollars, three thousand dollars were set aside for making the first series of pictures. They depict the attempts of Sir Walter Raleigh to colonize America. The films, of which three prints are now in circulation, were made on Roanoke Island. The characters were principally selected from the people living on the island. There is a thorough organization for the showing and distributing of films to the various county units.

2. The socialized recitation plan of teaching state history has been worked out to some extent at Winona State Teachers' College, Winona, Minnesota. There the pupils of the 8B Grade have written and to some extent illustrated their own state history. The advantage of such work is that it emphasizes pupil experiences rather than teacher method.

3. A limited number of fairly well-rounded texts that are interesting, concrete and well adapted to the pupils, have been produced in a few states. Much remains to be done in this field.

4. An attempt is being made at the present time to teach and write state history, not as a local chronicle, but as a part of the history of the nation. This plan is advocated by many historians of state and even of national reputation. Syllabi makers, textbook writers and teachers in a number of the states also favor the emphasis of the national element in state history.

<sup>1</sup> Much of the information given above was obtained from personal letters received by the author from D. H. Hill, Secretary North Carolina Historical Society, and W. H. Pittman, State Department of Education, State of North Carolina.

<sup>2</sup> *Biennial Report of Bureau of Community Service, State of North Carolina, (1918-1920)* p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> *Biennial Report of Bureau of Community Service, op. cit.*, p. 5.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 5.

<sup>5</sup> *North Carolina Pictorial History, Series No. 1, Educational Publication No. 40.* pp. 4 ff.

<sup>6</sup> Guldemeister, *Minnesota Courses of Study and Manual for Teachers* (1918) p. 175.

<sup>7</sup> The table of contents, as here quoted, will give an idea of what was accomplished. *Part I—Early History of Minnesota*—A The Dakota or Sioux Indians: (1) Manner of living and occupations; (2) Customs and ceremonies; (3) Mounds and builders; (4) Names derived from the Indians. B First White Men: (1) Names of men; places visited; fur trading; (2) Mission of white men; early roads and mail routes; (3) Fort Snelling. *Part II—Minnesota as a Territory*—A Organization and Development of Territory. B Conditions of country in 1849. C Conditions of country in 1850-1855. D Transition to Statehood. *Part III—Minnesota as a State*—A Progress of Minnesota after becoming a State. (1) Prison; (2) Reformatory; (3) Training school; (4) Soldiers' home; (5) Insane asylums; (6) School for defectives; (7) State normal schools and university. F. A Chronicle of Recent Events; "Minnesota" by Governor Hammond; the state song.

<sup>1</sup>Wayland, *A History of Virginia for Boys and Girls*, p. 210. The above description is made all the more effective by a map of the Cumberland Gap and adjacent regions.

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 11 ff.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 94.

<sup>4</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 349.

<sup>5</sup>For contrary opinion see *Local History*, pp. 5 ff. by Sherman Williams. Mr. Williams states in part: "New York is rich in history . . . Her important history does not receive adequate treatment in any general school history of our country, and can not . . . If our children are to know the history of our state as they should, it must be taken up as an independent study, and it is well worth a year of study."

<sup>6</sup>*Course of Study for Rural and Graded Schools* (1919) *State of Kansas*, p. 199.

<sup>7</sup>Gildemeister, *op. cit.*, p. 175.

<sup>8</sup>*Montana State Course of Study* (1921) *City Elementary Schools*, pp. 264, 287, and 296.

<sup>9</sup>*New Mexico Common Schools Course of Study and Some Important School Laws* (1921), pp. 41 to 44.

<sup>10</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 43.

<sup>11</sup>Fant and Fant, *History of Mississippi*, Preface.

<sup>12</sup>Vaughan, *History and Government of New Mexico*, Preface, p. 1.

<sup>13</sup>Carney, *Minnesota, the Star of the North*, Preface, pp. v-vi.

<sup>14</sup>In many high schools it is already conceded that state history should be taught from a national view-point. E. M. Violette, Head of History Department, State Teachers' College, Kirksville, Missouri, has written *A History of Missouri* for high schools based altogether on a national background. See Appendix C.

<sup>15</sup>*The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland—Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nineteen Fourteen at Trenton and Princeton, N. J., and New York, N. Y.* No. 12, pp. 17-18.

<sup>16</sup>Latane, "The Significance of Local History," *Ibid.*, p. 43.

## The Present Status of State History Teaching in the Elementary Grades<sup>1</sup>

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The purpose of this investigation is to determine the present status<sup>2</sup> of state history teaching in the elementary grades of rural and village schools of the United States. Such schools as these are as a rule under the direction of the State Departments of Education.

Such questions as the following are of paramount importance. In what states is state history taught? Is the teaching of state history optional or is it required by law? In what grades is this subject taught? How much time is given to it? Are teachers required to pass an examination in state history in order to secure a certificate? Are graduates from the common schools required to pass an examination in state history in order to secure a diploma or certificate of promotion?

Only two studies that deal with state history from a somewhat national viewpoint have been made so far as the writer has been able to discover. Neither one of the studies pretended to make a comprehensive study of state history in all sections of the United States.

In the summer of 1909, Franklin L. Riley,<sup>3</sup> Professor of History at the University of Mississippi, gathered a number of facts from teachers in southern schools which are of interest in this connection. The findings show in general that the time and place in the curriculum, the schedule of recitations, and the nature and amount of supplementary material vary greatly in the different states.

As most of the teachers were from Mississippi the conclusions concerning that state are the most important. It was found that the twenty-minute recitation periods were "totally inadequate," that Mississippi history was used to fill only the places in the curriculum that might be found after provision had been made for other subjects and that "parallel reading" had been neglected.

In 1912, R. M. Tryon<sup>4</sup> tabulated a questionnaire study of history teaching in 259 cities, towns, counties and districts; of which 163 were in Indiana and the other 106 from towns and cities in twenty-nine states and in the District of Columbia. One question dealt with local and state history. Out of 68 favorable replies, thirteen taught state history, thirty correlated it with local geography, twenty-one studies the city, county and state history, and four correlated it with either the regular history, geography or reading. The conclusions were as follows:

"There is little evidence that local history is taught in any one grade much more than in another. From the data supplied one concludes that the courses are very indefinite, and the material unorganized and often hard to obtain. There is evidence that most systems favor some work of this sort. To get the work in such form that both teachers and pupils can use it seems to be the present problem."<sup>5</sup>

### EXTENT AND SOURCES OF DATA

A one page questionnaire with form letter attached was sent to the state superintendents of each of the forty-eight states of the United States. As some of the state offices are limited as to funds for mailing material outside of the state, fifty cents in stamps was enclosed for any expense incurred. Special bulletins, state courses of study, and other available materials were requested. Forty answers were received at once. A second request brought answers from the remaining states.

Thirty-six reports were made by persons signing themselves as state superintendents, assistant state superintendents, or rural school supervisors. In twelve cases there was no definite indication as to the position of the person giving the data.

A similar questionnaire was sent to the authors of the state histories in the respective states. The answers returned were checked against those received



from the department of education in each of the corresponding states.

The results of both questionnaires were rechecked in various ways. Free use of the recent state courses of study was made. Numerous letters have been received from state superintendents, authors of textbooks, and others interested in the subject. Most of the state histories and the supplementary stories used in the United States have been obtained. Students in the University of Chicago were interviewed as to the practices in state history in their respective states. Free use was made of the school laws in many of the states to determine whether state history is required by law. If obscure points still remained, a personal letter to the state superintendent of the state in question often obtained the definite or detailed information desired.

#### THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was confined to one typewritten page as such a report always receives a more gratifying response than a more extended or detailed request. Only facts as to what was actually being done were requested. One question that was important was repeated twice so it could not be overlooked. The complete questionnaire follows:

Is state history taught in your state?

In what grade or grades taught?

Required or optional?

Name of adopted text?

Publishers of adopted text?

Are eighth grade pupils required to pass examination in state history for common school diplomas?

Are teachers required to pass examination in state history when examined for certificate?

Are pupils required to purchase text, or is it to be placed in hands of teacher only?

Name and address of author or authors of text?

Number of months state history is studied?

What map books or special charts are adopted for use with state history?

Are above prepared by author or authors of adopted texts?

In what grade or grades was text previously adopted used?

What supplementary texts or publications used?

Number of recitations in state history per week?

If no text is adopted what one is most used?

In what grade was text previously adopted used?

If not able to answer all questions please answer those you can.

#### TABULATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

Table I is a tabulation of much of the data used in the investigation. Following the table will be found such interpretations and amplifications of data as seem necessary.

#### STATES IN WHICH STATE HISTORY IS TAUGHT

As indicated by Table I, every state in the United States has made or plans to make some provision concerning the teaching of state history. To the question, "Is state history taught in your state?" the answer in thirty-four cases was "Yes," with no qualifications whatever. Four states answered "Yes, but with United States History." Seven states indicated

that state history was taught only to a very limited extent or in an incidental way. Two states are now either working on state history courses or plan to teach the subject ultimately.

From the standpoint of textual material a canvass of the situation shows that nineteen states, mostly in the southern or western sections of the United States, have either basic state-wide adopted texts or have adopted United States histories with state history supplements. Indiana and Arkansas are the only states that use the latter plan at present, with the possible exception of California. This state used a local history supplement to the Mace, *United States History* several years ago. The deputy superintendent of public instruction writes in a personal letter:

"I think there are many of these still in the schools, as they were free state textbooks. Just now we are not carrying any supplement to the history."

In addition to the state history supplement mentioned above, Arkansas uses Reynold's *Makers of Arkansas History*, and adopted state history text on the fifth and sixth grade level.

Nineteen states representing all sections of the United States, have either county or local adoptions of state history texts, or stories that are used either separately or to supplement the United States histories in use. In two states, Utah and Delaware, several books are used by the teachers for reference; but the pupils buy no text, as all teaching is oral.

Two states have not yet worked out their plans for state history. J. A. Churchill, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Oregon, writes:

"This subject has not been made a part of the course of study in Oregon as yet. However, there is a course of study in process of preparation and this subject will, no doubt, be made a part of the course of study which will be ready for distribution next September."

W. D. Lewis, Deputy Superintendent of Instruction for the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, states:

"The introduction of the history of Pennsylvania into the schools of this state has not taken final form yet, so that it would not be worth while for me to fill out the questionnaire. . . . We are planning to include Pennsylvania history as a part of the elementary school course, and shall ultimately have a syllabus in this subject."

Several states require special consideration. The educators of Massachusetts feel that they make provision for state history when they teach United States history. Burr F. Jones, Supervisor of Elementary Education, states in a personal letter:

"We are in a rather difficult position in Massachusetts to answer your inquiry with regard to state history because of the fact that in the early days of the country, Massachusetts history and colonial history coincide at many points. In fact, so much of the material relating to Massachusetts history is included in all United States histories, it has not seemed necessary for us to establish a separate course of study dealing specifically with state history."

In Rhode Island, the Commissioner of Education

TABLE I.—PRESENT STATUS OF STATE HISTORY.

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE GRAD.	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHER ONLY
Alabama	Yes	Sixth and Seventh, as a rule	One Semester	Five	Required	Yes	Yes, but at the close of Seventh Grade	State adopted text book	State History text in hands of pupils
Arizona	Yes, with U.S. History	Varies	Varies	No requirement	Optional	No	No	Incidental with State Adopted United States History Text	U. S. History text in hands of pupils
Arkansas	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Four	Usually three	Required	Yes	Yes	As adopted State Text, also a Supplement to United States History Text	Texts in hands of pupils
California	Yes, with U.S. History	Third to Eighth, usually Fifth and Sixth	One and one-half to two months	Four or Five	Required	No	No	Supplement to U. S. History, also such State History found in U. S. History	U. S. History Text, in some cases with state supplement in hands of pupils
Colorado	Yes	Eighth	Nine, throughout Eighth Grade	No requirement	Required	May be included	Yes	No adopted State History Text, several may be used	State history text may be in hands of pupils or the work may be incidental
Connecticut	Only incidentally	Varies	Varies	Varies	Optional	Supervision Agents in State educational History	No	Pamphlets from State Department, also text may be used locally	Pamphlets may be in hand of pupils or teacher, also texts
Delaware	Not from a text book	Fourth and Sixth	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required in course of study	Yes	No	No State Adopted Text	Text in hands of teacher only
Florida	Yes	Sixth	Six	Five	Required	Yes	Pass on Class work or examination	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Georgia	Yes	Sixth	Varies	Five	Required	Yes	Yes, but at the close of Seventh Grade	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Idaho	Yes	Sixth and Eighth, as a rule the Sixth	Varies	Three to Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Illinois	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	Not Specified	Optional	Usually required	Yes	Yes	Each District may adopt its own text, a number are used	Text in hand of pupils or teachers
Indiana	Yes	Eighth	A few weeks	Not Fixed	Required as a part of U. S. History	Yes, if questions are included	Yes, if questions are included	State History Supplement to Adopted United States History	U. S. History with state supplement in hands of pupils
Iowa	Some in the grades	Fourth to Eighth inclusive	About four and one-half	Two to five	Optional	No	No	No State Adopted Text, Economic and institutional state history stories used	Text, as a rule in hands of pupils
Kansas	Yes	Seventh	Three or Four	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupil furnished free by state
Kentucky	Yes	Sixth	One year minimum six mo.	Five	Required	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	No	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Louisiana	Yes	Fifth	Four and one-half	Five	Required	No	No	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils

TABLE I.—(Continued.)

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHERS ONLY
Maine	Yes	Seventh and Eighth especially	At least one term of school	Not prescribed but sufficient to cover work	Required	As part of U.S. History examination	Yes, same as other subjects	No State Adopted Text. Various texts and source books are used	Text for reference in library of school and in hands of teachers
Maryland	Yes	Fifth and Sixth	About four	Averages three per week	Yes, to a certain extent	Yes	Yes	No State adopted text. County adoption of various state histories	Free text in hands of pupils
Massachusetts	Not a separate subject								
Michigan	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	During Seventh Grade	Not Fixed	Required	Yes, combined with U. S. History	Yes, combined with U. S. History	No State Adopted Text. History stories, and in Eighth Grade part of U. S. History	History stories hands of teachers and pupils, also U. S. History in hands of pupils
Minnesota	No Not generally	Fifth to Eighth Inc'l.	No requirements	No requirement	Optional	No	No		
Mississippi	Yes	Sixth	Six to nine months	Three to Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State Adopted Text Book	Text in hands of pupils
Missouri	Yes	Eighth	About two months	Five	Required in Eighth grade but not in high school	Yes, for State Certificate	Yes, over one-fourth year's work	No State Adopted Text. County adoptions of various State Histories	Text in hands of pupils. Text sometimes used by teachers for reading circle
Montana	Yes, with U.S. History	Fifth and Eighth Grade inclusive	No requirements	No requirement	Optional	No	No	No Adopted State Text. Adopted supplementary stories with U. S. Hist.	"Story of Montana" in hands of text
Nebraska	Yes	Eighth	No requirements	No requirement	Required	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	Yes, included with U. S. History questions	No Adopted State Text. Two texts used rather extensively	Text in hands of pupils as a rule, sometimes in libraries for reference
Nevada	Yes	All grades	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required	No	No	No Adopted Text. Stories of Nevada and where available	Nevada stories in hands of teachers U. S. History in hands of pupils
New Hampshire	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Required	No	No	No Adopted Text. Supplementary material for U. S. History Text	Supplementary material in hands of teacher. U. S. History in hands of pupils
New Jersey	Yes, with U.S. History	Eighth for the most part	Varies	Varies	Required	In connection with U. S. History	In connection with U. S. History	No adopted text. U. S. History, supplemented by "Stockton's N. Y. Stories."	Stories of New Jersey, and U. S. History in hands of pupils or teacher
New Mexico	Yes	Seventh and Eighth	None, for state history and civics	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted Text. Often taught in combination with U. S. History	Text in hands of pupils
New York	Yes, but incidental	Fifth, Sixth, Seventh and Eighth	No requirement	No requirement	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. Incidental material to supplement U. S. History	Incidental material in hands of teacher U. S. History text in hands of pupils
North Carolina	Yes	Fourth, Fifth and Sixth	Minimum of Eight Months	Varies	Required	Yes, if certificate by examination	A local requirement only	State adopted basic and supplementary texts	Text in hands of pupils
North Dakota	Not as a separate subject	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Not Fixed	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. No text written as yet for school use.	Oral teaching from source material in Dakota Blue Book

TABLE I.—(Continued.)

NAME OF STATE	IS STATE HISTORY TAUGHT	GRADE OR GRADES IN WHICH TAUGHT	NUMBER OF MOS. TAUGHT	REC. PER WEEK	REQUIRED	EXAM. FOR TEACHER'S CERT.	EXAM. FOR EIGHTH GRADE	NATURE OF TEXT MATERIAL	TEXT USED BY PUPILS OR IN HANDS OF TEACHERS ONLY
Ohio	Yes, to some extent	As a rule the Seventh or Eighth	Varies	Varies	Optional	No	No	No state adopted text. Each local unit adopts text. Several texts used	Texts for the most part are in the hands of pupils
Oregon 1	Not Yet								
Oklahoma	Yes	Sixth	Three to Four and one-half	Five	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted text book	In hands of pupils
Pennsylvania 2	Not Yet								
Rhode Island	Yes	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Optional	No	Varies with localities	Patriotic and Historical pamphlets issued by State Department	Pamphlets in hands of pupils and teachers
South Carolina	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Five to Nine	Five	Required	No	No	State adopted text book	In hands of pupils
South Dakota	Yes	Sixth	Four and one-half	Five	Required	Yes	No	No State adopted text. County adoptions. Several used in elementary grades	Text may be in hands of pupils or teachers
Texas	Yes	Sixth	Nine	Five	Required	Yes	Grades made in class used	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Tennessee	Yes	Sixth	School Term varies from 5 to 9 months	Five	Required	Yes	Examination at close of Sixth Grade	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Utah	Yes	Fourth	Nine months with civics	Five	Required	As part of U. S. History Examination	As part of U. S. History examination	No adopted text. Reference books used by teachers only	Reference books in hands of teacher only. Oral teaching of the subject
Vermont	Yes	Sixth and Seventh	Optional	Optional	Required	Yes	No	No one adopted State History. Several used extensively	Reference books in libraries, texts and stories in hands of teachers and pupils
Virginia	Yes	Fifth	Nine	Not specified	Required	Yes	Yes	State adopted text book	Text in hands of pupils
Washington	Yes	First to eighth grade incl.	Varies with localities	Varies with localities	Required	Yes	Yes, with U. S. History	No State adopted text. Various county boards adopt the texts	Varies in different districts. In some pupils use text in others in hand of teacher
West Virginia	Yes	Sixth, Seventh and Eighth	Not specified	Not specified	Required	Yes, with U. S. History	Yes	State adopted text book	Text used by pupils
Wisconsin	Yes	Fifth, Sixth and Seventh	Not fixed	Not fixed	Required	Yes	Yes	No state adopted text. Local adoptions, several texts used	Text used by pupils
Wyoming	Yes	Fourth and Fifth	Usually about one-half of each year	Not designated	Required in state course	No	Yes, with U. S. History	State adopted text book	Text used by pupils

has been promoting the study of state history for several years by distributing programs for the observance of certain days in schools. A personal letter from the office of Walter E. Ranger, Commissioner of Education in Rhode Island, states:

"This year 73,000 copies of each of these programs are going into the schools and thence into the homes of Rhode Island."

Connecticut uses a somewhat similar plan. Pamphlets containing material on both state and town history, as well as lists of books for supplementary reading are furnished the schools by the state department of education. A textbook is also used in some of the schools.

In New York, the approach to state history is made from a biographical viewpoint as a part of the United States history. In a personal letter, Avery W. Skinner, Director of the Examinations and Inspections Division, State Department of Education, writes as follows:

"May I say that we do not have in this state a separate course in state history. Our syllabus provides for emphasis upon state and local history, and in the fifth and sixth grades of the elementary school where the subject is approached from a biographical point of view many of the historic characters associated with this state are studied. In the seventh and eighth grades also a portion of our syllabus is devoted to state history, but with these exceptions there is no specific syllabus in the subject or definite allotment of time given to it."

Relative to the situation in New Jersey, the Commissioner of Education writes:

"State history is taught in connection with other history. A special textbook is not used. . . . In a general way, we are teaching the history of New Jersey through supplementary reading. A book entitled 'Stockton's Stories of New Jersey,' published by the American Book Company, is used for supplementary reading."

The southern and western states emphasize state history. Every state that seceded at the time of the Civil War teaches from one half year to two years of state history. In many of these states the people are very proud of the history of their respective states. Anna Webb Blanton, State Superintendent of Texas, writes:

"It was no trouble to answer the questions—on the contrary, a pleasure, as Texans are proud of the fact that Texas has an interesting history."

The same feeling exists in Virginia, Kansas and a number of other states.

In some of the younger states of the west material for state history is very limited. The Deputy State Superintendent of North Dakota writes:

"We do not teach state history in our public schools as a separate subject. As you know, North Dakota is one of the younger states of our union, and it is almost too early for us to expect a textbook on the history of North Dakota suitable for use in our schools. We have not made history enough to warrant the publication of such a volume. . . . Teachers give instruction in local history, but as yet

it is not taught as a separate subject, nor is it a required subject either for graduation from the grades or high school."

#### GRADES IN WHICH STATE HISTORY IS TAUGHT

State history is taught in all grades from the first to the eighth. In Washington, where county adoptions prevail, the state history is taught in any grade or grades from the first to the eighth inclusive. Three states teach their history in four different grades, while the same number of states permit their teachers to use from one to three grades for this subject. In fourteen states the study of state history may be completed in two grades. Sixteen states use only one grade for this subject. This situation is not so bad as it seems, however, as several grades are often combined in the rural schools. Moreover, state history may be taught in a number of grades but only for a very brief period.

State history is taught more often in the sixth than in any other grade. Eight states teach their local history entirely in the sixth grade. Seventeen others teach local history here, though not offering the entire course at this level.

The data which were obtained indicate the tendency to place the study of state history at a lower grade level. Ten states teach state history in lower grades today than they did from one to thirteen years ago. Seven states indicate no change. One New England state has pushed its history forward from the fifth to the sixth and seventh grades. More or less complete data, relative to this point of grade placement were obtained for eighteen states.

#### TIME DEVOTED TO STATE HISTORY

As indicated in Table I, the number of months state history is taught per year in each state varies greatly. The tendency in the southern states is to give from one-half to a full year of this subject. In several of them state history may be taught as much as two years. Three of these states require only a half year of it. In the western states the practice varies from nine months for state history and civics in New Mexico to no definite requirement in Montana. In New England the practice varies from Maine with a requirement of at least one school term to Massachusetts with no regulation whatever. The amount of time in the northern and central states is not fixed as a rule.

The number of recitations per week varies much, not only in different states, but often within the same state. In thirteen states there are five recitations per week. Seven of these states have courses in state history for the whole school year. Five provide for state history one half the school year, one for a period of two months in the grades with one year in the high school, and the other does not have the number of months fixed. In six states the number of recitations varies from two to five. In the larger number of the states "not specified," "varies," "no requirement," or "optional" was the answer to this question. In a number of the states the state history is read in class when the pupils have nothing else to do or it is the supplementary list for home reading.

### IS STATE HISTORY REQUIRED?

The fact that a state legislature in a burst of local pride or enthusiasm passed a law requiring state history to be taught in the public schools of its own state does not always mean that a special textbook for state history is used or particular emphasis is placed upon the subject.

For example, *The School Law of Nevada*, 1922 edition, under the head of "An act to promote Americanism in the schools of the State of Nevada," approved February 24, 1921, reads as follows:

"American history, history of the State of Nevada, and American civil government shall be taught in all of the graded schools, high schools, and colleges in the State of Nevada, especially scientific schools excepted."<sup>6</sup>

Information from W. J. Hunting, state superintendent of schools, indicates that there is no adopted textbook for state history, that the number of months this subject is taught is not fixed and that "histories and stories of Nevada" are used wherever available. Moreover, there is no mention of state history in the *Nevada State Course of Study* in use in 1922.

To illustrate further, the information from the superintendent's office of the State of California is that state history is "required by law." Job Wood, Jr., Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction in that state, writes:

"Regarding state history permit me to state that it is usually taught in connection with the United States history . . . at one time we had a supplement to the history book giving the state history. . . . Just now we are not carrying any supplement to the history."

On the other hand, a state may have no law concerning the teaching of state history and yet this subject may be taught quite extensively from locally adopted texts throughout the state. Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Illinois, writes in a personal letter:

"I am sending you under another cover a copy of our School Law, in which you will discover that the Boards of Directors or the Boards of Education, as the case may be, are authorized to adopt such courses of study as in their judgment will best suit their locality."

An examination of *The School Law of Illinois*,<sup>7</sup> 1921 edition, corroborates this statement. The law states:

"Boards of Education or Boards of School Directors are empowered, and it shall be their duty to adopt such textbooks . . . needful for use in said schools."

A careful canvas of the situation shows that most of the counties and local districts in Illinois do teach state history. Mather's *The Making of Illinois* is the adopted text in some localities. *Illinois* by Grace Humphrey, is used extensively. The investigation indicates that Illinois teaches more state history as such than do Nevada or California with special laws that require the teaching of this subject. Their practice is to claim they teach it when they teach United

States history.

A state law may not especially require state history but there may be a provision requiring the schools in the state to follow the course of study as outlined by the state superintendent. If this subject is included, it must be taught. Michigan law requires all school districts except city districts to follow the course of study published by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The course of study does provide for state history in that state,<sup>8</sup> although there is no adopted text.

To the question whether or not state history was required, thirty-one states answered "yes." Three other states answered as follows: "Yes, as a part of United States history," "Yes, to a certain extent," and "Yes, in eighth grade, but optional in the ninth." In nine states this subject is optional or not required. One state considers state history and United States history as the same thing so far as that state is concerned. Two states have not yet worked out their course for state history, but plan to teach this subject in the near future.

### TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS IN STATE HISTORY

A state law that requires teachers to pass an examination in state history to secure a certificate sometimes has a very marked influence on the interest manifested in the subject. Doane Robinson, Secretary of the South Dakota State Historical Society, and author of one of the state history texts used in his state, writes in a personal letter:

"More than twenty years ago, in revising the laws pertaining to certification of teachers the legislature, good naturedly, if not ignorantly, inserted a provision requiring examination in state history. That provision at once created wide interest in the study and has had a marked influence in developing a loyal citizenship. So far as I am informed, state pride is more dominant here than elsewhere."

In twenty states examination in state history as a special subject is required to secure any grade of certificate obtainable by that process. In two states questions may be included for such examinations. In Missouri examination is required for state certificate only. In eight states questions on this subject are included as a part of the United States history examination. In Connecticut state supervising agents are required to pass an examination in the history of education in that state. Fourteen states require no form of state history examination for teacher certification. Two states have their state history courses in process of formation and could give no definite information.

### PUPIL EXAMINATIONS IN STATE HISTORY

Table I shows that in thirteen states pupils pass an examination in this subject at the close of the eighth grade to secure a diploma for graduation from the common schools. In three states, two in the North and one in the South, such questions may or may not be included as the requirement is local. Some of the southern states have no eighth grade common school diploma system as the seventh grade completes their common school work. So six of these

states either give the examination at the close of the seventh grade or pass the pupils without examination on grades made during previous years. Six states (located in the North or West) combine their state history and United States history examinations. Twenty states give no examination in this subject.

#### SUMMARY

1. Every state in the United States has made, or plans to make in the near future, some provision for the teaching of state history. Of these states nineteen have basic state adopted texts, nineteen have local adoptions of state histories or stories, eight provide for incidental teaching or consider state history a part of United States history, and two have not yet worked out their plans for state history.

2. While state history is taught in all grades from the first to the eighth inclusive, the predominate grade is the sixth.

3. The data at hand indicate that the grade tendency for state history teaching is downward. Ten states teach this subject in lower grades than they did twelve years ago. Many syllabi makers indicate a current tendency to place this subject still lower in the grades.

4. Thirty-one states have laws that provide either directly or indirectly for state history. However, the fact that a law provides for this subject does not always mean that a special textbook is used or par-

ticular emphasis is placed on the subject. Other states without such laws may teach more state history.

5. In twenty states, examination in state history as a separate subject is required in order to secure a certificate by that process. In fourteen states such examination in state history as a separate subject or a part of United States history may or may not be included for various forms of certificates. Fourteen states require no examination in this subject for teachers' certificates.

6. While the practice as to pupil examination often varies greatly even within a single state, the replies indicate that less than one half of the states require separate examination in this subject for graduation from the common school.

<sup>1</sup> Editor's Note. It has been found impracticable to include in this issue all the excellent tables accompanying Mr. Hann's article.

<sup>2</sup> The data were collected between Feb. 15 and June 1, 1922.

<sup>3</sup> Riley, "Is State History Worth While?" *History Teacher's Magazine*, Vol. II, p. 156.

<sup>4</sup> Tryon, "Materials, Methods and Administration of History Study in the Elementary Schools of the United States," *Indiana University Studies*, Vol. X, No. 9.

<sup>5</sup> Tryon, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

<sup>6</sup> p. 148.

<sup>7</sup> p. 159.

<sup>8</sup> *Manual and Course of Study, Elementary Schools, State of Michigan*, pp. 195 ff.

## An Attainable Program of Social Studies for the High School

BY HOWARD C. HILL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL

### THE PROBLEM

The modern school administrator finds himself in much the same predicament as the old woman who lived in a shoe: he finds so many subjects and activities demanding a place in the curriculum that he scarcely knows what to do or how to manage. His efforts to meet this pressure, which has its origin in the highly complex character of present-day life, have resulted in the organization in many high schools of numerous "courses"—classical, literary, commercial—and in the offering of a large number of elective subjects.

While this solution of the problem has met certain important social needs, it has given but partial satisfaction to the exponents of various lines of learning. With a sincere belief in the value of their wares, the advocates of the languages, both ancient and modern, have emphasized the importance of the study of a foreign tongue; the mathematicians have stressed the value of training in mathematics; the scientists have called attention to the fact that we live in a scientific age and that science therefore must be studied; teachers of the manual and household arts have urged the educational value of these activities; instructors in

English have stressed the importance of a mastery of the vernacular; and exponents of the social studies—history, civics, economics, and sociology—have laid emphasis upon the necessity for the inculcation of their subject matter as essential for effective training in citizenship. Naturally, the school administrator has found it impossible, amid this multiplicity of claims, to gratify the demands which each claimant has put forth to what he regards as his rightful and proper share of the estate.

In recent years many of the advocates of the various subjects have apparently awakened to the difficulty of this administrative problem and to the force of the arguments put forth by the sponsors of the other subjects. In 1898, for example, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association came out in favor of four years of history in the high school, a position from which the Committee of Five in 1911 receded but slightly. In 1920, however, the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, while recommending four years of work in the social studies for four-year high schools, provided for only two years of history.<sup>1</sup>

That four years of work in the social studies should be required of high-school pupils is a proposition



which today seems to be gaining in favor. At the same time available evidence indicates that the number of high schools which actually make such a requirement is relatively small. Certainly to expect to secure a greater amount of time for the social sciences—at least for years to come—seems chimerical.

The hope of promoting a four-year program and of indicating a practical way of lessening the administrative burden explains in part the social-science sequence in the University of Chicago High School. This sequence consists of four years of work arranged in the following order: Community Life, Survey of Civilization, Modern History, Modern Problems. Let us now turn to a brief consideration of each of these courses.

#### COMMUNITY LIFE ENGLISH

The course in Community Life is an introductory study of society. It includes such topics as the family, the school, the church, the community and its problems, business and industry, government and political parties. By arrangement with the department of English it is given as a combination course in social science and English and is programmed as Community Life English.<sup>2</sup>

The work in the course is divided into two main phases: the reading phase and the expressional or composition phase. In the reading phase emphasis is placed upon extensive reading in various types of worthy literature rather than upon an intensive study of a few textbooks or classics. With this end in view reading lists containing from fifty to two hundred titles are furnished each pupil as the study of each topic is undertaken. These lists include books on travel, histories, biographies, poems, plays, novels, and short stories as well as references to the more traditional type of material. Each title is included because it is a worthy piece of literature and because in some way it explains or illuminates the topic which is the subject of study. In their selections from these lists pupils are permitted to follow their own tastes in large part. Unity and coherence are given to the work by requiring from all the mastery of the core of material furnished in the text, a feature of the course which has proved essential to its success.

A course of this character cannot be carried on effectively without an abundance of books. An enthusiastic teacher will not allow a lack in this respect to interfere with the enterprise; like Sentimental Tommy he, too, will "find a way." And, fortunately, "the way," as a rule, will not prove hard to find. To quote:

"If books are not forthcoming with as great liberality as the need demands, there are ways of remedying the shortage, which are open in varying degrees to all teachers. The pupils themselves usually have some of the books on the list of readings which they are glad to put at the service of the class. In addition to multiplying the material at hand, this method furnishes a practical opportunity for the cultivation of genuine citizenship. In the second place, the books available can usually be supplemented at the public library. With rare exceptions,

librarians are eager to cooperate with teachers by placing books on reserve, by assisting in the building up of bibliographies, and by loaning quantities of books to the schools. In some communities, the library will loan boxes of books for a month or more and will deliver and call for them without expense to the school. In addition, many states now have library boards or commissions from which loans of books can be obtained in lots of from fifty to one hundred volumes upon the payment of freight charges. Finally, if necessary, it is possible in most communities to give an entertainment, the proceeds of which can be used for the purchase of books for the school library. Thus, by purchase, by the cooperation of pupils, and by the assistance of libraries, an adequate supply of books can be secured."<sup>3</sup>

The wide and varied reading done by the pupils has not only enriched the subject matter of the course, but has served as excellent material for the expressional phase of the work. This is especially true of oral compositions, for pupils have discovered in their reading interesting information and viewpoints, oftentimes unfamiliar to their classmates, which they have been able to present in floor-talks with that enthusiasm which can come only from a genuine audience situation. For written compositions, social-science material has proved to be peculiarly rich in its possibilities. Pupils who have experienced marked difficulty in writing themes of a traditional nature have, as a rule, found little trouble in discovering "something to say" when asked to write an essay, story, one-act play, or a poem, depicting some phase or illustrating some aspect of community life.

The advantages from an administrative viewpoint of a combination course in Social Science and English are obvious. Without adding to the burden or complexity of the curriculum, opportunity is thereby provided for a full year of civics while at the same time the work in English is enriched. The combination, moreover, is a partial realization of the recommendation of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Association of Secondary School Principals that "the time of one-half unit a year" should be given to the social studies "in each of the years from the seventh grade through the twelfth."<sup>4</sup> It is one step towards the establishment of a four-year program of social studies for every high-school pupil.

#### SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION

If one may judge from the reports of various committees which have made recommendations on the matter during the last six years and from existing educational conditions and tendencies in the country at large, two years is the maximum amount of history which will be required for graduation from high school for a considerable time to come. If this is the case it becomes a matter of consequence what the content of these two years of history shall be.

Few if any would be willing to discard American history; not many would consent to the omission of modern European history; and there are large numbers who would stoutly defend the educational value

of a study of ancient and medieval times. It is apparent that it is impossible to give a full year to each of these blocks of history if the time available is limited to a total of two years. What then is the best solution of the problem?

To this question different persons will doubtless give different answers. The solution reached in the University High School at the present time is summed up in two full-year courses. The first of these is called Survey of Civilization; the second, Modern History.<sup>5</sup>

The course in Survey of Civilization consists of a series of cross-sectional studies of certain typical civilizations of the past. The period covered by the course extends roughly from the earliest times to approximately 1750 A. D. The work is organized on a topical rather than on a chronological basis. Among the topics treated are Primitive Life, Egyptian Civilization, Greek Culture, Roman Life and Institutions, Medieval Civilization, and American Colonial Life. In the study of each of these topics, the life and customs of the people, their industries, religious beliefs, government, social classifications, art, literature, and educational institutions receive chief emphasis. Each topic is joined to the succeeding one by a narrative thread in such a way as to bring out the continuity of history. The main aim throughout, however, is to stress those phases of life which make the past intelligible and to bring out those features which contribute notably to an understanding of the present.<sup>6</sup>

#### MODERN HISTORY

As indicated above, the latter part of the course in Survey of Civilization includes a study of American colonial life and institutions and brings within its compass an examination of the American Revolution. This combination of European and American history is an outstanding feature of the succeeding course in Modern History. To quote from a previous article:

"The advantages in this organization of modern history are, first, that when studied after the course in Survey of Civilization, it completes a unified and coherent view of the evolution of human progress; second, that it enables pupils who can study history only one year to obtain a fair understanding of both modern European and American history; and, third, that it presents the development of the United States in its true light—as a phase of world history and not as an isolated narrative. Such topics as the Industrial Revolution, the Monroe Doctrine, immigration, financial panics, the silver question, imperialism, and the World War can, in fact, be understood aright only when seen from a world viewpoint and in their international aspects."<sup>7</sup>

Beginning with a survey of the Industrial Revolution, the topics studied during the year are the French Revolution, the Era of Metternich, the Development of Nationality, the Slavery Controversy, the Westward Movement, the Expansion of Industrial Nations, and the World War and World Reconstruction. Like the course in Survey of Civilization, the work is organized on a topical basis, but unlike it the chief

emphasis is placed on narrative elements. This change in stress arises from the fact that in the period of a century and a half covered by the course the marked transformations in civilization are too few in number to justify a study with them as the chief points of emphasis and—what is more important—from the belief that as one approaches the present the narrative becomes of enhanced importance in explaining the world of today and its problems. The relation between the form of organization and the methods of instruction used in this course appears in the following quotation:

"In the organizing and teaching of this course a constant effort is made to link the past with the present. The topical arrangement of material is well adapted to fulfill this purpose. For example, in teaching the Industrial Revolution—the first topic, in the course—it is easy to point out that, although historians refer ordinarily to the changes which took place in industry between 1750 and 1880 as the Industrial Revolution, we are still living in the same great era; that the invention in recent years of the automobile, the multipress, the airplane, the internal-combustion gas engine, and radio telephony constitute in reality developments similar in character and equal in importance, in a sense, to the spinning jenny, the power loom, the cotton gin, the steamboat, and the locomotive.

"In like manner it is easy to show, on the one hand, the connection between the principles of liberty, fraternity, and equality of the French Revolution and the principles of the Allies in the World War; and on the other, the similarity between the philosophy and policies of the ruling powers in the Age of Metternich and those for which the Central Powers stood during the late world catastrophe. In studying the fourth topic, also, pupils have no difficulty in recognizing the operation of the force of nationality, which was so potent in unifying Germany and Italy, in the developments which are taking place in our own day in Ireland, Poland, Greece, Armenia, and China.

"The connection between the Slavery Controversy of two generations ago and the negro problem and Solid South of the first quarter of the Twentieth Century is also easily discernible. Equally apparent—when pointed out—is the relation between the Westward Movement with its wastefulness and the conservation activities of late years. Comment on the last two topics, in so far as they touch the matter under discussion, is unnecessary: each of them is so closely joined to current problems and events that the linking of past and present is practically unavoidable. In cases like these certain phases of contemporary history form integral parts of the subject matter of a unit; in other instances the relation between earlier times and the world of today is brought out by the instructor. It is obvious that the constant connection or union of the happenings and movements of bygone days with those of our own time—a feature which constitutes so important a characteristic of this course—tends both to promote an historical attitude of mind in the pupils who study

the subject and to give them a fairly intelligent appreciation of the world in which they live."<sup>8</sup>

#### MODERN PROBLEMS

The concluding unit in the social-science sequence of the University High School is called Modern Problems. This course consists of a study of certain important political, economic, and social problems of modern life. Emphasis is placed not so much on the acquisition of a body of factual information about these problems as on the comprehension of certain fundamental principles or laws which underlie human relationships and which are manifest in the topics selected for study. The main purpose of the course, in fact, is to provide training which shall be comparable, when due allowance is made for differences in the nature of the subject matter, to that now furnished in such natural sciences as physics and chemistry. In other words, the object in view is to give the pupils who study the course, an outlook upon the social world similar to that which they receive of the physical world as a result of the study of astronomy, chemistry, or physics.

The course is at present divided into two main parts: first, that which deals primarily with civil and governmental matters; and second, that which is devoted chiefly to economic problems and principles. No textbook is used in the course, and all work is done by the laboratory method. In addition to the use of a large number of books, pamphlets, and periodicals, considerable mimeographed material is furnished the pupils. Certain phases of the topics studied are presented to the class in informal lectures.

By way of summary it may be said that the curriculum of the University High School provides for a four-year sequence in social science,<sup>9</sup> but that as a result of the combination of Community Life and English, only three years, in addition to the time ordinarily devoted to the study of English, are needed to complete the work. Two of the four blocks in this sequence are devoted primarily to history; two are centered upon the needs of the present. The

work begins with an introductory study of the community life of today; it then provides for a survey of the chief phases of human progress from the earliest times to the present; finally, it culminates in an investigation and analysis of our civil and economic institutions and of the principles and laws which enter into modern organized society. As a whole it offers an attainable program of social studies for the high school.

<sup>8</sup>Other alternatives were also suggested. Although this report was not adopted by the American Historical Association; it undoubtedly reflected the views of a considerable group in that organization. The report was published in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (March-June, 1931).

<sup>9</sup>A detailed description of the administration of this course, the objectives in view, the methods of instruction employed, together with illustrations of the results attained will be found in my "Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review* (January-March, 1933), Vol. XXX, pp. 24-36, 118-126, 175-186.

<sup>10</sup>*Loc. cit.* p. 36.

<sup>11</sup>*School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1930), 283-297.

<sup>12</sup>The reasons which led to the organization of these courses and the connection between them are given more adequately in my "Two-Year Sequence in High-School History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1932), Vol. I.

<sup>13</sup>For a detailed description of this course see A. F. Barnard's "Survey of Civilization," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1932), vol. I.

<sup>14</sup>Hill, "A Two-Year Sequence in High-School History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, November, 1932, Vol. I.

<sup>15</sup>Hill, "A Course in Modern History," *Studies in Secondary Education*, University of Chicago High School, (November, 1932), Vol. I. This article describes in detail the content of the course, the materials used, and the method of instruction followed.

<sup>16</sup>In addition to the regular four-year sequence described in this article the following courses are given: Ancient History, intended primarily for pupils who expect to attend institutions which still insist upon the subject for entrance credit; The Worker in Modern Society, an experimental course in industrial economics; and Business Administration, an experimental course dealing with practical phases of business management. Each of the last two courses continues for one semester only.

## Teachers for Democracy<sup>1</sup>

ALEXIS F. LANGE, DEAN OF SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

After September 1, 1922, seekers after license to practice in California secondary schools must show that they have had "a teacher's course in citizenship, presented in such manner as to qualify the teacher to appreciate the social purpose of his subject and to make instruction in all classes and activities contribute to the education and training of the youth for good citizenship." Thenceforth, so I would read and state the pith of the new rule framed by a State Board mindful of the welfare of our democratic social order, only those need apply for certification who have been well started toward becoming teachers for Democracy and only those teacher-training bodies need apply for approval which have set afoot specific plans for initiating the process. Implied is, besides,

that those who choose and captain teachers—this means you, chiefly—will hereafter get and further develop teachers for Democracy. Implied is also, I take it, that although the concept "good citizenship" may include 57 varieties of meanings, the idea of true progress in living together on ever-rising levels shall fix the far goal.

Now, whether or not this State Board prescription will be taken by every one concerned without sugar, I, for one, receive it with whole-hearted gladness. Else I should be false to all that has become pivotal in my best knowledge and belief. So will very likely all who try to keep eyes and ears open and at times use their cerebrums to think with, while on the road to Democracy with the rest of their

people. Few school men and women, at any rate, will back away in fright and join a dear old ossified professor of mine who never failed to gasp out in the presence of what looked like a new thought: "Gentlemen, gentlemen, is not this an innovation?"

But when the State Board sends forth the command: "Let there be light," teacher trainers may not be able at once to recite in answering chorus, "And there was light, hallelujah!" They have to reckon, first of all, with the fact that the making of American leading citizens, enlightened, ardent and girt for action on the road to Democracy, is not as yet generally one of the controlling purposes of our American universities. Many other reasons apart, the Great War did not make our universities safe for Democracy. More lovingly than before, a cynic might observe, they go on hatching only the eggs laid by the German university cuckoo in the nest of our own college bird. These eggs—research and specialized expertness—are "perfectly good" eggs and are to be prized greatly, as means to human ends in our national life; but they are not the eggs out of which to hatch American leading citizens. At all events, he would bear false witness who would testify that our American universities purposefully and planfully function so as to instruct and train students for clear—and foresighted teamwork for the common good of our America and thus of the world. Hence teacher trainers whose theory of education has become Americanized are usually voices crying in the scholastic wilderness, and so, aside from cheering but lonely signs of promise here and there, where are the courses that narrow the gap to be bridged in a two-unit course between the classroom life and works of the student and the end sought by the State Board?

Secondly, we university teacher trainers have to reckon with our own state of unpreparedness for an adequate course in civic education, however willing we may be to confess our sins and to gather on the mourners' bench with a view to beginning a new life. Has our own intra-school education been such as to leave us with human instead of merely academic minds? Most of us, I am ready to believe, have indeed discovered America, while seeking something else, like Columbus, but how many of us can fairly claim to have become explorers, pioneers, and missionaries thereof in the practice of our profession? Are we quick at detecting the counterfeit or debased Americanism in circulation as a 100 per cent mintage? Have we earned the right, because of the insight and appreciation we have won, to act as guides on the rough trails of social science to the vocation—every American's vocation—of becoming not a stationary but an advancing citizen, one who will do better things in better ways with and for his fellows on the road to Democracy?

In view of such and kindred hindrances, which to be sure may mean only that growing pains or rather out-growing pains are coming on, the present state of affairs appears to be that the State Department prescribes a brief course that students are not prepared to receive and that their teachers have first to

learn how to give. They are ordered to get into the "dinkiest" Ford they can invent, buy, borrow, or steal, and then drive, with dim headlights at best, in near-darkness over country without state highways to make travel fairly easy and safe.

What is to be done? Perhaps sufficient unto this day and half hour is the question: What is to be done first? The answer must be, I think: Let us school men and women go up in the air—as airplane scouts, for the purpose of securing data and directions for the road maps to be followed in the course in civic education for all prospective teachers. If this counsel is sound my present notes and queries concerning the organization and conduct of the course must be looked upon as a first report to a committee of the whole by one of the scouts.

Unless there is something wrong with my eyes and field glasses, we must start—at Berkeley anyway—along two parallel routes. One of these is that of readings which will bring about contacts between the minds and hearts of students and the minds and hearts of those who have earned the right to voice judgment and counsel as to our living together as American men, women, and children. Among such people of light and leading may be found perhaps even some erring but honest Bookshelvikis. To forestall a menu of hash, however, a syllabus, preferably in challenging question or problem form, will have to be organized and to go with it, a bibliographical guide, both covering the factors that make or mar progressive group-life—eugenic, hygienic, economic, group-mental, group-aesthetic, group-moral and religious, historical, governmental, philosophical, etc.—both bearing explicitly or implicitly on the theory and art of *civiculture*, both shaped throughout by the integrating purpose of by and by getting adequately trained teachers for Democracy, each of whom shall incessantly further the collective advance on the road to Democracy, himself or herself striving continuously to see the way ahead "steadily and to see it whole." Of course, such a guide-syllabus will in the nature of things be at first hardly more than embryonic. Zeus alone ever underwent the experience of seeing a panoplied goddess, ready for business, suddenly pop out of one head. But, surely, it cannot be merely a pipe-dream that the teacher-trainers and teachers generally will evolve and perfect gradually a tool subserving adequately the proper conduct of the specified course and at the same time, besides, the civic aims of teachers' study circles—may their tribe increase—teachers' institutes and conventions, perhaps even of the junior college department of *civiculture*, departments ardently hoped for, but, alas, as yet unseen.

The second route is that of lectures, alternating, when numbers permit, with the far better way of coöperative class exercises, which by nature exemplify the process of achieving Democracy. Here we shall obviously have to deal, first, with the why and whither of civic education, if the meaning of Democracy is to be fulfilled, gradatim; secondly, with the whereabouts of the American people in these years of growth and grace with reference to such fulfillment:

thirdly, with the how of civic education, if there are to be any next steps at all and then neither the steps of milling cattle, nor backward steps, but steps forward. To speak more bookishly, Part I may well be labeled Theory of Civic Education. It should, I think, stand chiefly for an attempt to locate as definitely as may be by means of the instruments of knowledge and perfected thinking available at present, the major and minor objectives for a hierarchy of clean-cut purposes. As likely as not, it will prove most convenient and clarifying to group these objectives as knowledge, feeling and will objectives, the loadstar of the whole exploration being of course from first to last the Democracy-creating American citizen of the more or less immediate future. And—lest we forget—in developing a theory meant to be set to work, one may not altogether overlook the precept: While in Luna do as the Lunatics do.

Part II, a part to be handled with care and brevity, may be called An Inspectorial Survey of the actual situation. In such an undertaking, the objectives of civic education coinciding of course with the direction a people on the road to Democracy must follow, serve as touchstones of things as they are or appear, for without thought-forged criteria we have nothing better than unsound opinions or, what is worse, heat but no light. For the evaluation of the governmental functioning of Democracy James Bryce has set a humanly perfect example. Would that his mantle might descend upon the teacher-trainer while he heads a tour of inspection! His itinerary will inevitably include the form and functions of the present American school system. Such questions must be pressed as: Are the opportunities it offers now continuous, complete, equitably distributed? Does its management make for Czarism or for Sovietism or for Democracy? What remains to be done to make each school a national American Democracy-creating institution?

Now the reason for the existence of Parts I and II lies in Part III, The Art of Civic Education. Over the trails of fact, insights, and basic principles found or blazed with and for prospective teachers these are to join forces with the glorious band of pioneers who in California as elsewhere are Americanizing the American native, despite the method of trial and error most of them are as yet compelled to use. But here the teacher-trainer soon finds himself in a jungle of questions thornier than any encountered before. How is he to reveal to the future teacher for Democracy the "social purpose of his subject" so that he will appreciate it and then fare forth, St. Paul-like, and set the revelations to work in the class room? Toward which of the objectives of civiculture shall each precious subject be made to go without cruelty to the animal? How shall each teacher co-act in order that all may move forward as a champion football team to the goal? The process of developing citizens must obviously go on without a break, but how is a unifying and correlating course to be devised, beginning, let

us say, where the elementary school leaves off and continuing to where the junior college ends and how is it to be made a part of existing curricula? What are the experts, who, to be sure, do not belong in the story I am trying to tell now, to do with such a course? How are all school activities of teachers and pupils to be unified with reference to the vocation of citizenship and so correlated with the activities of adult Americans that each school-group becomes a vital group-unit of a nation dedicated to learning how to live the creed of Democracy?

Facing such unsolved problems the teacher-trainer cannot but appeal to school men and women as did the man of St. Paul's vision: Come over into Macedonia and help us! A minute or two will suffice for a glimpse of the assistance needed at one point—Latin. I single out Latin because it reminds many of you of a misspent youth and some of you are certain it is dead, for was it not killed before your eyes by the raving ablative absolute maniacs, your teachers?

But might not Latin come to life the instant Latin teachers give their minds to some of the objectives of civic education and then seek out the paths linking Latin with the vocation of American citizenship? From this point of view, the traditional order Caesar, Cicero, Virgil furnishes an almost providential sequence. Caesar's Commentaries might almost bear the sub-title "Early Stages of Social Progress." Here is an account of the collision, so often repeated down to date, between barbarism and civilization. Incidentally we learn that even the barbarians of Gaul had to deal with the strictly up-to-date question of how to get rid of Roman bootleggers. Cicero deals with more advanced modes of associated living. He introduces us to the economic, political and other struggles of a would-be republic, many of them closely analogous to those of today. We, too, have our Catilines, and who knows but Cicero himself is even now impersonating our own recurrent William Jennings Bryan. In Virgil, finally, a nation becomes articulate as to itself, and its neighbors as to its motives and patterns of conduct, as to the deep-down conditions and causes of national greatness or decay. Now, do not these obvious opportunities just cry to be embraced? But how can they be brought to rich fruition unless Latin teachers, actual as well as prospective, work out together a manual, let us say, of true and tried problems, exercises, methods, suggestions, relating to the specific civic habits of thought, feeling and action, that Latin is fitted to promote?

Every other subject on the secondary school program, however, not to speak of every intra- and extra-group activity of the school, calls imperatively for similar treatment. Think of what might not be done for the vocation of being an American citizen through a manual developed by the concerted efforts of the teachers entrusted with physical education and all that is implied therein! As many of you know the Department of Education at Berkeley has for several years past been endeavoring to set agoing what I have

named a Research Syndicate, of which, ideally, every teacher would be an active member, each getting more light and letting it shine. Well, such a syndicate would render a simply priceless, patriotic service, if during the decade before us, it achieved the manuals of civiculture I am trying to describe. And how the teacher-trainer conducting the course prescribed by the State Board would rejoice! How he would be inspired to pass on, if possible, from the glory of the imperfect to the next greater, the glory of the less imperfect!

But the ways indicated or hinted at for bringing up teachers for Democracy including ourselves, radiate from a common hub of starting points of postulates, given us by science and faith. Lest this report from above—I refer of course to my airplane and not to Sinai—seem much longer than the actual time you are resolved to undergo, I submit several of these postulates in the form of tentative propositions, which I think should serve as a lamp unto our feet.

1. *The teacher for Democracy teaches youth, not subjects.* Cardinal in his practice and the "hot spot of his consciousness" is the insight that each boy or girl is the priceless and measureless end of his ministry and the further insight that each boy and girl lives, moves and has his being in human interactions and relationships. A man without a country cannot be a man. On these two insights hang the law and gospel of Democracy. Furthermore, He knows that each boy and girl was born an immigrant and came with a bundle of queerly-assorted instincts more or less social, gathered during the long journey of his or her family from the amoeba to man. If now the teacher for Democracy could only add "second sight" to his equipment or the ability to cast a true horoscope for America and for his young Americans, he could hope to lead them sagaciously to the coincidence of the roads to Democracy and to wholeness of manhood and womanhood, or if you will, life, liberty and happiness. But there is at least a chance for the teacher of lads and lasses, while the teacher of subjects is helpless and hopeless, if not directly anti-social, anti-democratic.

2. *The teacher for Democracy never forgets that he is a United States Ambassador sent by adult America, the America of today, to young America, the America of tomorrow.* What else can be the bed-rock meaning of his teacher's certificate and his oath of allegiance? Proudly conscious of the fact, it becomes a matter of *noblesse oblige* with him to understand the creed of Democracy by the light social science, social psychology, social ethics, and political science, are capable of furnishing today, to deepen his sense of oneness with his people and to appreciate sympathetically and lovingly its approximation in fact to its more or less thought-out purposes. When he has occasion to use the slogan: "Government rests on the consent of the governed," he has in mind the consent of the quick and the dead and the unborn, but not being a standpatter, never the consent of the dead alone. Being not only a bearer of the word, but a doer, his own character and conduct come pro-

gressively nearer to agreement with his mission as ambassador. He becomes indeed an American leading citizen, a citizen leading youth onward and upward on the road to Democracy.

3. *The teacher for Democracy never forgets that Democracy means essentially not a good and perfect gift bequeathed by the fathers, but a progressive achievement of developing ideals.* Not every "self-evident truth" was mentioned in the Declaration of Independence. Four generations later nothing seems more "self-evident" than that "the old order changeth" both as to thought and its embodiment. Every growing boy or girl is an illustration of out-growing. Even China has stood pat only a thousand years or more. The problem for the teacher of Democracy is, therefore, not how to prevent change, but how to make change mean the next step forward. This applies to the creed of democracy no less than to its observances and ritual, to its ideals no less than to its machinery and technique. Accordingly, the teacher for Democracy cannot but be guided by the insight that all men are born equally ignorant and helpless and that the ideas and ideals and the practice represented by such words as equality, freedom, brotherhood, self-government, popular sovereignty must be renewed and re-expressed in timely ways from generation to generation. And so he would be disloyal to the Constitution if he ever deviated in thought or act from its true principle of progressive change according to progressive knowledge and belief. He may be conservative and so counsel: "Go slow, safety first." He may be liberal and advise: "Go as fast as your people can follow." He may be even radical and exceed the speed limit. Public opinion will catch him if he does. But he betrays those who appointed him ambassador if he says: "At this spot on the road to Democracy let us stop and rest forever. What has posterity done for us that we should keep going?"

4. *The teacher for Democracy is international because he is sturdily and staunchly national.* Among our imperishable national gems is found the Declaration of Independence. Recent years have added the Declaration of Interdependence, although no Thomas Jefferson has as yet cut and polished the rough diamond. That it exists, however, is amply attested by the League of Nations and the results of the Disarmament Conference. The teacher for Democracy loves both declarations and takes the consequences. To him a world caste system, each nation a caste separated from the rest by rigid barriers, is as repugnant as an American caste system. He regards the Americanism that does not include all nations in good will as a denial of Democracy, as poorly camouflaged Prussianism. It suggests the Democracy of the professional criminal class in which the many virtues within the group are all pointed against the community as a whole. But whether the millennium is far off or at hand, the teacher for Democracy accepts as another "self-evident" truth that only a free, strong, self-respecting, and self-determining nation can do anything worth while towards a federation of the world and the parliament of man. Hence, he does

not object even to the maxim: "My country right or wrong: still my country," provided it is properly fumigated and disinfected, and insists that an American citizen trying to live the creed of Democracy, which is universal but may take on many forms, must by virtue of his profession be first national and then international.

To this report by your scout, I wish to add a question which persists in turning up. Cannot we teachers work out together a plan for adoption by our lay fellow-citizens, whereby admission to adult citizenship at the age of twenty-one might become a public solemn state function and rite? Why should not each Fourth of July be the occasion for initiation ceremonies, for a civic commencement, one infinitely more significant than the commencements at which sheepskins and doctors' hoods and oratorical platitudes are delivered? To my mind this would be a most fitting thing to do even before we realize an adequate course of instruction and training from infancy to the end of the junior college period.

Dogmatic, as some of my statements have been, I

hope that they have not given you the impression that you were being browbeaten and perhaps even high-browbeaten into agreement. On the other hand, I am not very much afraid that you will do unto me as the Gileadites did when they found a man that could not say "Shibboleth" properly. "They took him and slew him at the passages of Jordan." At all events, we agree that all of us are both called and chosen to be teachers for Democracy and that not one of us could hope for a finer epitaph in the grateful memory of the adult America of the future than that inscribed on Giordano Bruno's monument: "Raised by the generation which he foresaw."

<sup>1</sup> Editorial Note. Reprinted by courtesy of *The Sierra Educational News*. Address delivered at the annual convention of High School Principals, Pasadena, April 10, 1922. There is no state in which more attention is given to the training of teachers than in California. For a number of years all prospective teachers have been required by state law to show a proficiency in the use of the English language and such physical health as will insure efficiency. It is now made a requirement that every prospective teacher for any of the grades shall show some training in sound civic thought and ideals. Attention need not be called to the extreme difficulty of administering this requirement,—even in devising instruction for those who wish to meet it fully. In the foregoing paper Professor Lange, who took a leading part in setting up the requirement, presents some of his views on the subject.

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PHILADELPHIA



## Book Reviews

*The Foundations of New England.* By James Truslow Adams. Atlantic Monthly Press, Boston, 1921. 482 pp. \$4.00.

In these days of wrangling groups of propagandists, racial, religious, political, sectional, economic, and "patriotic," each bent upon exalting itself at all costs, it is refreshing to find an historian introducing his work with the bold statement that "We cannot understand the present unless we understand the past, and we cannot understand the past if we lie about it, make pretty traditions or epics of a false patriotism." Adding to this scientific temper thorough research and an entertaining style, Mr. Adams has produced a remarkably interesting and informing volume. It fairly won the Pulitzer Prize within a few months of publication.

The volume opens with a chapter on "The American Background," an excellent summary of the environmental influences, followed by two chapters giving the imperial setting, and the recurrence of this point of view, with one of the best brief accounts of Mercantilism yet written, makes the book something more than a local history though it must rank as the standard work on early New England. The author has studied to good advantage such leading scholars in the field as Osgood, Andrews, and Beer, and a wide range of monographic material, while for the local history he writes almost entirely from primary sources. The time-honored idealizations and sentimentalities of the New England school are brushed aside, and while most of the details recorded are familiar to scholars, the story is effectively recast and the emphasis and interpretation are fresh.

Mr. Adams shows us the Puritans in England as a very small minority in the church (though later the political party known by that name was much larger), and far less concerned with reform than with a determination to force their views on the nine-tenths or more who disagreed with them and to gain control of the Church. They suffered very little from persecution, and owing to their subsidies to Puritan clergymen it was very profitable for the latter to be non-conformist. Despite his occasional "torturing self-examinations," the Puritan ordinarily felt "the comfortable assurance that, although the bulk of his neighbors were going to hell, he himself was one of the everlasting saints," that his own interpretation of Scripture was final "not merely for himself but for the entire community," that he had the right and duty, as God's elect, to regulate the minutest details of his neighbor's private conduct in a way that neither political nor ecclesiastical despotism had been accustomed to attempt. The New England Puritan strove to keep the control of the church and state in the hands of a small oligarchy, following a ruthless policy of repression that produced not universal morality but "a vast deal of hypocrisy," and by forbidding harmless recreation "fostered greatly the grosser forms of vice." Even the leader of the gentler and less intolerant Pilgrims declared that in no other

place he had known or heard of was unnamable crime so frequent as in New England, and he correctly guessed the cause.

The book is devoted chiefly to Massachusetts whose dominant position and influence perhaps justify the proportions, though some readers will wish that more were told about the other New England colonies. It is still more regrettable that a considerable field of social history, education, and economic conditions (which receive little attention save in connection with imperial relations), are so scantily treated. And what a pity that such a work does not give us a set of lifelike portraits of the leading figures of the drama, even though drawn with less than the skill of a Strachy! Mr. Adams sees that the Puritan spirit has survived in America, but he makes no comment on the War and post-War hysteria with its panic repressions.  
J. M. G.

*An Introduction to the History of History.* By James T. Shotwell. New York, Columbia University Press, 1922. 339 pp. \$4.00.

Professor Shotwell contributes this volume to the series "Records of Civilization: Sources and Studies," of which he is Editor. Except for the last chapter, it deals only with ancient historiography, a field which the author disclaims as his own while regretting that some specialist in ancient history has not written an account from which he can quote. In spite of this modest apology, Professor Shotwell shows familiarity with the sources and mastery of the bibliography; and he presents the interpretations of their own times by the historians of antiquity in the light of his own wide knowledge of medieval and modern interpretations. And besides, he has "the allurements of style and often of imaginative appeal which win readers for history."

After defining history, the author divides its scope into the "research which is science and the narration which is art." He shows how long it was before myth and legend could be properly criticized and then, after an illuminating chapter on Books and Writing he describes the ways in which time has been measured and lays down the canons for that basic historical requisite, chronology. Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria and Persia get rather short shrift since the literary sources are great neither in value nor in amount; but the author recognizes the historical value of the increasing amount of archaeological material. The chapter on Jewish history, filling about 50 pages, will captivate any reader. It is brief, sane and scholarly, and will carry conviction without offense. "Judged as historical material," says the author (p. 80), "the Old Testament stands higher today than when its text was protected with the sanctions of religion."

The section on Greek history, 82 pages in length, is chiefly taken up with comment on Herodotus, Thucydides and Polybius. To the Greeks Professor Shotwell assigns, as is usual, that beginning of "critical thought, that bold and free spirit of investigation" which mark the rise of true history. He follows the present trend of historical criticism in making Herodotus of more and Thucydides of less

importance. In speaking of the latter he grants the value of his method and his meticulous search for facts and the periodic stateliness of his style but makes the keen observation (carefully avoiding unfair comparison with moderns) that Thucydides, in thinking that "war was the one and proper subject of history," shows a narrow-mindedness which is tending to lessen him in the regard of historians. Mr. J. B. Bury, with 281 pages for his "Greek Historians" has treated them more critically and yet more sympathetically than does Professor Shotwell.

Roman history is covered in 67 pages. Tacitus is compared with Thucydides, in that both were consummate artists, but both, because of their prescientific minds—no blame to them—failed "to appreciate the importance of the commonplace and obscure." The author joins in the hue and cry which, of late years, is hard after Tacitus, and which seems to have shown that when his class or personal interests were at stake, Tacitus was unfair in his judgments. The last section of the work is entitled Christianity and History. Here Professor Shotwell in a few pages talks of the New Era and gives a very sympathetic account of the work of Origen and Eusebius.

The Germans have been in the field of the History of History for a good many years and their best work is decidedly more searching in the study of details than is Professor Shotwell's. Yet the author makes no claim that his book is a distinctly new contribution and he has in fact done more than merely clarify and summarize existing material. He has made a number of brief, subjective, critical analyses which are new and carry conviction. The reviewer sees no point in indicating a few trivial errors or in asking why this or that work does not appear in the bibliographies and no sense in sighing over the omission of things he thinks might have been included. What is here is enough for its purpose, it is well told, and both material and treatment are of the highest scholastic order.

R. V. D. MAGOFFIN.

Johns Hopkins University.

*Loyal Citizenship.* By Thomas Harrison Reed. World Book Company, Yonkers, 1922. X+333 pp. \$1.40. *Elementary Community Civics.* By R. O. Hughes. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1922. 449 pp. \$1.20.

*Loyal Citizenship* is, to quote from the advertisement of the book's publishers, "a textbook designed to meet the needs of any first course in Civics in junior high school grades." The book is divided into five parts, each subdivided into thirty-six topics. The titles of the parts are: 1, Social and Economic Fundamentals; 2, Fundamentals of Citizenship; 3, The Citizen and the Local Community; 4, The Citizen in State and Nation; 5, Some Problems of Larger Citizenship. About one third of the text is given over to topics dealing with government, while the other two thirds is divided among sociology, economics, and "community civics."

The author in his preface states that the course that

this text is designed to fit should give the necessary minimum of knowledge of the institutions and principles of government and society. The material he has selected to bring about this much desired result has been well chosen, but it has been crowded into the "minimum" of space. It is essentially a book of bald and unadorned facts. This may or may not be a fault. It would seem, however, in view of the fact that many of the teachers in junior high schools are not specialists in economics and sociology that a more extended treatment of the topics dealing with these subjects would have been more satisfying. The style, while clear and forceful, is not so attractive that the student will find himself carried away with the story. However, the essentials are there and if they are properly digested and assimilated they should prove to be of great benefit to the student. The book has the emphatic style, that is, the important word, phrase or sentence in each paragraph is italicized. The print is clear and easily read; the illustrations are well chosen and beautify the book. At the end of each chapter there are topics for investigation and proposed civic activities.

*Elementary Community Civics*, the latest effort of Mr. Hughes in the way of texts is not to be confused with his earlier book entitled *Community Civics*. It is designed for those schools which have adopted an outline for civic instruction in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades following the recommendation of the report of the N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies (1916). In particular, it would seem that the book is intended to appeal to teachers in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania generally for the text follows very closely the syllabi used in that city and state. Four of the fourteen chapters are given to the discussion of topics in government, and the others are divided among the following: The Citizen and the Community; Health; Protection of Life and Property; Education; Recreation; Community Planning; Transportation; and Communication; Wealth; Care of the Unfortunates; and, Promoting Right Living. Two of the chapters, Wealth and Transportation, and Communication, could be used in a short course in Economic Civics, but there is not enough material in the book for a half year's course in that subject, especially if five recitations a week are given to it.

The subject matter is well chosen and the style is entertaining. At the end of each chapter there is a list of well-chosen questions and a collection of suggested studies that are called Themes and Exercises. Scattered throughout the text, that is in the discussion proper, are to be found very clever questions of the thought-provoking kind. There are 194 illustrations in the book and they are almost uniformly interesting and well chosen. It ought to be a good book for the Pennsylvania teachers or any other teachers of Community Civics who are using an outline similar to the Philadelphia syllabus or to that prepared by the Department of Education in the state of Pennsylvania.

PHILIP DOUGHERTY.

Baltimore Polytechnic Institute.

*The Control of American Foreign Relations.* By Quincy Wright. The Macmillan Company, New York. xxvi, 412 pp. 1922.

During recent years there has been much discussion of the clauses of the American constitution relating to the control of foreign relations. At first the debate was carried on with particular reference to the police powers of the states, the issue in controversy being the anti-Japanese legislation of some of the western commonwealths. More recently the problem has been given a different orientation, for the senatorial debate on the peace treaty raised in acute form questions as to the powers of the President and of the Senate in respect to treaties. In 1919 the American Philosophical Society announced that the Henry M. Phillips prize would be awarded for the best essay submitted on the subject, "The Control of the foreign relations of the United States: the respective rights, duties, and responsibilities of the President, the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the Judiciary, in theory and practice." The prize was given to Professor Wright for his monograph which deals minutely with all of the elements of the subject as announced. The study is a technical one in constitutional and international law and the specialist will consider valuable the perscrutation of precedents and authorities. The forest of details is so great, however, that general principles and tendencies find it difficult to show their heads. The author is interested in constitutional law and not in politics. There is nothing to show who really determines our foreign relations and there is no discussion of the "control" of the day by day diplomacy of the country which is frequently just as important as treaties. This is a question of politics rather than of law, but it ought to receive consideration in a monograph on "the control of American foreign relations."

LINDSAY ROGERS.

#### BOOK NOTES

*An Advanced History of Great Britain*, by T. F. Tout (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 1920; 795 pp., \$2.50), is a British textbook of a type now little used in the United States. It is a work of sound and thorough scholarship, packed with information chronologically arranged by years and reigns, supplied with 80 genealogical tables, chapter lists of "Chief Dates," and numerous campaign maps and battle plans. The few chapters devoted to social and economic conditions are simply interpolated in the main narrative which in the time-honored political and constitutional story. If the reader's eyes can endure the strain of the fine type, this manual might prove very useful as a work of reference.

Woodrow Wilson's well-known *Division and Reunion* appears in its 38rd impression "with additional chapters bringing the narrative down to the end of 1918," by Professor Edward S. Corwin, of Princeton. The General Bibliography (pp. viii-x) has been revised while those of the sections, badly out of date, seem to be unchanged until p. 288, and the text also stands until changes are begun in the chapter on The

War with Spain and Its Consequences. These changes, except for additions to the story, are almost invariably for the worse. Mr. Wilson's interesting and often pungent comments, and particularly his expressions of opinion, are mercilessly excised. Characterizations of McKinley and Roosevelt and high praise of Leonard Wood's Cuban administration eliminated. The new chapters on the Wilson administration and the World War, though naturally representing the official view, are moderately written and free of objectionable partisanship. It was well worth while to bring this widely-used manual to date. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1893, 1921; 455 pp., \$1.25.)

"More experience and experiment have been crowded into these ten years than into all the remainder of our railroad history of nearly a century," says Professor Frank Haigh Dixon, of Princeton, in the preface of his *Railroads and Government: Their Relations in the United States, 1910-1921*. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1922; 384 pp., \$2.25.) Such a decade of course produced numerous and lively controversies. Professor Dixon, a leading authority on railroads, has made this study from official records, and his work is thorough, scholarly, and remarkably fair. Himself an opponent of government operation and approving the Transportation Act of 1920, he is not afraid to record all facts, nor to pay tribute to the many good features and results of the Federal Railway Administration. Though intended as a college text, the book is a useful work of reference for the high school teacher.

*The Americanization of Edward Bok*, now appearing in its twentieth printing and in a new and "Popular Edition," has enjoyed immense popularity and won the Pulitzer prize for "the best American biography teaching patriotic and unselfish services to the people illustrated by an eminent example." It tells almost nothing of "Americanization" and is less a biography than a long series of anecdotes strung on a thin thread of narrative about Edward Bok and written in the third person. But these anecdotes do throw much light on Edward Bok, and sometimes on others, and the book is exceedingly readable. The author believes that luck is with those who are interested and work hard, yet he is undoubtedly right when he says (p. 180): "But Edward Bok has always felt that he was materially helped by fortuitous conditions not of his own creation or choice." The earlier part of the story reads much like a fairy tale. Youthful readers will enjoy it. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1920, 461 pp., \$8.00.)

The new edition of *Who's Who in America* (Vol. 12, 1922-1923), edited by A. N. Marquis, appears with 3000 new sketches besides a revision to date of the others, in all about 25,000 biographical summaries of living Americans or foreigners residing here. It has won recognition as the standard work of its kind, very different in character from the numerous volumes in which any vain citizen can buy space by ordering a copy of the book or paying for the insertion of his picture. Eminent men and women in every field

of activity are included, and the notices are business-like summaries of fact (including addresses) without criticism of any kind. There is a classified list of the names by states, and a Pronouncing Vocabulary, the latter useful but needing revision—it omits "Cudahy," for example, but includes "Palmer" and "Mott." *Who's Who* ought to be much more widely used than it now is by pupils in schools and colleges, not to mention their teachers. There is ample need for it in connection with the now common study of "current events." (A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago, 1922; 3500 pp., thin paper, \$7.50 post paid.)

*Society and Its Problems*, by Professor Grove Samuel Dow, is a thorough revision of *Introduction to the Principles of Sociology*, which appeared in 1920 from the Baylor University Press. (T. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1922; 594 pp., \$2.75.) It is intended to give a general idea of the whole science, but devotes itself much less to principles and theories than to practical problems such as immigration, "urban migration," race friction, education, poverty, crime, etc. It is thus not to be compared with such textbooks as Ross's *Principles*, or Giddings's *Elements*, but rather with a work like Blackmar and Gillin's *Outlines*, and it is an easier book for the beginner. The present edition has been considerably revised, various errors of detail eliminated, figures from the 1920 Census incorporated, and a new chapter on Heredity added.

*History of Indiana*, by Logan, Esarey, Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1922, xii, 862 pp. This textbook in Indiana history is admirably adapted to meet the ends for which it was written. It contains a well organized, simple and accurate account. There is no striving after effect by dwelling upon the unusual. The truth is interesting enough. The text contains a few extremely useful maps and many illustrations that really illustrate. The legends accompanying the illustrations usually sufficiently explain and identify them. The reprint in full at the end of each chapter of a well chosen document helps to carry the mind of the reader closer to events and times described.—A. L. KOHLMEIER.

Our American experience in settling controversies between somewhat sovereign states by lawsuits in the Supreme Court has been accurately and succinctly reviewed in Mr. Herbert A. Smith's "The American Supreme Court as an International Tribunal" (Oxford University Press, New York, 1920, viii, 128 pp.), with a view to the lessons offered for the more ambitious enterprise of a Supreme Court of the World with jurisdiction to arbitrate between the states which now have to compose their difficulties by diplomatic jockeying or by appeal to Mars. Mr. Smith sees that we cannot hope for much from an international tribunal unless we have a definite and written system of international law drawn up by agreement of the members of a new world organization. There must be a law to enforce before there is a court to enforce it. Thus Mr. Smith warns us against delusive analogues. His judgments as well as his recital are to be commended.—T. R. POWELL.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Sept. 30, to Oct. 28, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.  
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, Chas. K. and Trent, W. P. A history of the United States. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 572 pp. \$2.00.  
Bolton, Herbert E. and Adams, Ephraim D. California's Story [history]. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 216 pp. \$1.90.  
Bradlee, Francis B. C. The eastern railroad; a historical account of early railroading in eastern New England. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 192 pp.  
Brooks, E. S. The true story of the United States of America [revised edition]. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepherd. 305 pp. \$2.00.  
Capper, Arthur. The agricultural bloc. N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace & Co. 171 pp. \$1.50.  
Cleland, Robert G. A history of California; the American period. N. Y.: Macmillan. 612 pp. \$4.00.  
Corman, Samuel E. Our republic. N. Y.: Century Co. 851 pp. (3½ p. bibl.). \$5.00.  
Hutchins, Frank & Costello. Virginia, the old dominion. Boston: Page Co. 299 pp. \$5.00.  
Lamprey, Louise. Days of the Colonists. N. Y.: Stokes. 283 pp. \$2.50.  
Lyman, Col. Theodore. Meade's headquarters, 1863-1865. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. 371 pp. \$4.00.  
Fleming, George T. History of Pittsburgh and environs from prehistoric days to the beginning of the American Revolution. In 6 vols. N. Y.: American Historical Society. \$37.50.  
Morrison, S. E. A prologue to American history. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 32 pp. 50c.  
Pettigrew, Richard F. Imperial Washington; the story of American public life from 1870 to 1920. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 441 pp. \$1.25.  
Rolt-Wheeler, Francis W. The coming of the people. N. Y.: Doran. 267 pp. \$1.50.  
Rothert, Otto Arthur. The Filson club and its activities 1884-1922. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co. 64 pp.  
Sawyer, Joseph D. History of the Pilgrims and Puritans. In 3 vols. N. Y.: Century Hist. Co., 8 W. 47th St. Set, \$39.50.  
Turner, Frederick J. and Merk, Frederick. List of references on the history of the West. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 166 pp. \$1.50.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Chiera, Edward. Selected temple accounts from Telloh, Yekha and Drehem. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 35 pp. 75c.  
Kummer, Frederick A. The first days of man [for young readers]. N. Y.: Doran. 293 pp. \$2.00.  
Maspero, Sir G. C. C. The dawn of civilization, Egypt and Chaldea. N. Y.: Macmillan. 800 pp. \$9.00.  
Matheson, P. E. The growth of Rome. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 96 pp. \$1.00.  
Myers, Phillip V. A short history of ancient times [revised edition]. Boston: Ginn & Co. 276 pp. \$1.40.  
Newman, J. B. Beginners ancient history; from earliest times. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 173 pp. 96c.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Blunt, Wilfred S. Secret history of the British occupation of Egypt. N. Y.: Knopf. 416 pp. \$5.00.  
Rowell, Newton W. The British Empire and world peace. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 307 pp. \$3.50.

### EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Glover, William. Brief history of modern Europe from 1814 to the Great War. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 230 pp. \$1.90.  
Lanson, René, and Desselgnat, Jules. *La France et la civilisation de la révolution à nos jours*. N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace & Co. 296 pp. (9 p. bibl.) 96c.  
Newman, J. B. Beginners modern history; from about A. D. 1000. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 166 pp. 96c.

Oechsli, Wilhelm. *History of Switzerland, 1499-1914*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 480 pp. (15 p. bibl.) \$6.50.  
 Stephens, Winifred. *Women of the French Revolution*. N. Y.: Dutton. 287 pp. \$5.00.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Beard, Charles A. *Cross-currents in Europe today*. Boston: M. Jones. 278 pp. (2 p. bibl.) \$2.50.  
 Mills, J. S. *The Genoa Conference*. N. Y.: Dutton. 436 pp. \$8.00.  
 Nitti, Francesco. *The wreck of Europe*. Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill. 304 pp. \$2.50.  
 Raleigh, Sir Walter. *The war in the air [The Royal Air Force in the World War] Vol. I*. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 490 pp. \$7.00.

## MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Gebhart, Emile. *Mystics and heretics in Italy at the end of the Middle Ages*. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 283 pp. \$4.00.  
 Wilmont-Buxton, E. M. *The story of the Crusades*. N. Y.: Crowell. 286 pp. \$1.75.

## MISCELLANEOUS

Aldis, Harry G. *The University library, Cambridge [England] Helps for students of history, No. 46*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 31 pp. 20c.  
 Barnes, Harry E. *History: Its Rise and Development*. Reprint. Worcester, Mass., the Author.  
 Lee, Mabel Ping Hua. *The economic history of China*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 187 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$1.75.  
 Wood, Eric. *Famous voyages of the great discoverers [for young people]*. N. Y.: Crowell. 270 pp. \$1.75.

## BIOGRAPHY

White, Stewart E. *Daniel Boone, wilderness scout*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 308 pp. \$1.75.  
 Schaff, Morris. *Jefferson Davis; his life and personality*. Boston: John W. Luce & Co. 277 pp. \$3.00.  
 Watson, Virginia C. *With La Salle, the explorer*. N. Y.: Holt. 266 pp. \$3.50.  
 Massini, Giuseppe. *Massini's letters to an English family, 1855-1860*. In 3 vols. Vol. 2 and 3. N. Y.: John Lane. 293, 394 pp. Each \$5.00.  
 Hendrick, Burton J. *The life and letters of Walter H. Page*. In 2 vols. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 436, 437 pp. Set \$10.00.  
 Trissal, Francis M. *Public Men of Indiana; a political history from 1860-1890*. Hammond, Ind.: 226 pp. \$2.00.  
 Thayer, William R. *George Washington*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 274 pp. \$3.50.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

Ashley, Roscoe L. *The practice of citizenship*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 466 pp. (10½ p. bibl.) \$1.48.  
 Hughes, Ray O. *Problems of American Democracy*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 616 pp. \$1.60.  
 Jens, J. W. and Smith, R. D. *We and our government*. N. Y.: Boni & Liveright. 223 pp. \$2.00.  
 Niblack, Albert P. *Why wars come*. Boston: Stratford Pub. Co. 165 pp. \$1.50.  
 Ostrogorski, M. *Democracy and the organization of political parties*. In two vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 627, 793 pp. Set \$8.00.  
 Thorpe, Francis N. *The essentials of American government*. N. Y.: Putnam. 190 pp. \$1.75.  
 Wright, Quincy. *The control of American foreign relations*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 412 pp. \$3.25.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

An Apology for Historical Research. A. F. Pollard (*History*, October).  
 Are History and Science Different Kinds of Knowledge? Symposium by R. G. Collingwood, A. E. Taylor, F. C. S. Schiller (*Mind*, October).  
 Ancient Religions of China. Rev. C. Waldtlow (*New China Review*, August).  
 The Historical Setting of Chinkiang (concluded). W. J. Clennell (*New China Review*, August).

Rise of Imams of Sanaa. A. S. Tritton (*Journal of Indian History*, September).

Marsiglio of Padua. I. C. Kenneth Brampton (*English Historical Review*, October).

Some Famous War-Horses of Famous Leaders. Garrett B. Drummond (*Cavalry Journal*, July).

Quakerism. Herbert G. Wood (*Edinburgh Review*, October).

The Struggle for the Right of Association in Fourteenth-Century Florence. Niccolò Rodolico (*History*, October).

The Domestic Organisation of France under the Consulate and the Empire. Mrs. Milton Broad (*Parents' Review*, October).

The Suppression of Piracy in the West Indies, 1820-1832. Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, October).

Lott Cary, the Colonizing Missionary. Miles M. Fisher (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

The Policy of France. André Tardieu (*Foreign Affairs*, September).

The Tacna-Arica Controversy. Edwin M. Borchard (*Foreign Affairs*, September).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

Council, Star Chamber, and Privy Council under the Tudors. A. F. Pollard (*English Historical Review*, October). II. The Star Chamber.

The Public Records of Scotland. J. H. Stevenson (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

The "Domesday" Roll of Chester. R. Stewart-Brown (*English Historical Review*, October).

A Letter to Scotland from the Council of Basel. R. K. Hannay (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Henry V. of England in France, 1415-1422. I. M. U. Muir Wilson (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Five Letters of James I. E. W. M. Balfour-Melville (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Anglo-Portuguese Negotiations relating to Bombay, 1660-1677. Shabaat Ahmad Khan (*Journal of Indian History*, September).

Jamaica, Past and Present. T. H. MacDermot (*Dalhousie Review*, October).

The Orkney Pennylands. J. Storer Clouston (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

The Admiral of Scotland. A. R. G. McMillan (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Vicissitudes of a Loyalist City. J. P. Edwards (*Dalhousie Review*, October). Roseway, later Shelbourne.

Anne, Lady Bacon. Mary B. Whiting (*Contemporary Review*, October).

Canadian Negroes and the Rebellion of 1837. Fred Landon (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

The Murat of the Marathas. Demetrius C. Boulger (*Army Quarterly*, October). The story of Jeswant Rao Holkar in India.

India and British Imperialism. Alleyne Ireland (*Century*, November).

English Agriculture since 1914. Reginald Lennard (*Journal of Political Economy*, October).

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## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

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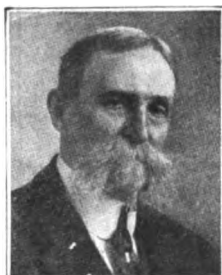
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